A

SUMMARY

OF

UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

FROM

THE CREATION

TO THE

PRESENT TIME.

IN LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO HIS SON.

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ELEVENTH ÆRA.

OF

Univerſal Hiſtory,

Commencing in the Year 1453, *and ending in the Year* 1715.

FIRST LETTER.

IN my arrangement of this æra, I ſhall firſt treat of the Turkiſh empire, and the Aſiatic ſtates. Mahomet II. purſued his conqueſts on the European ſide, till he was diverted by Uſſum Caſſan king of Perſia, one of Tamerlane's deſcendants, and who was diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the White Ram. He had married

a daughter of David Comnenus emperor of Trebizond: but he was obliged to make peace, on the terms of allowing Mahomet to poſſeſs himſelf of Trebizond, and a part of Cappadocia that depended on it. On the death of Scanderbeg, this Turkiſh monarch alſo obtained the territories held by the latter. In an attack on the iſland of Rhodes, his arms were not ſo ſucceſsful: and towards the cloſe of his reign he was involved in a war with ſome of the Italian ſtates, during which the Venetians particularly exerted themſelves. His ſucceſſor, Bajazet II. had a very turbulent reign at home, and was alſo engaged in war with the Hungarians, Venetians, Perſians and Egyptians. He was at length depoſed by his ſecond ſon Selim I. and afterwards poiſoned by his orders. Selim then put to death Achmet his elder brother: and a younger brother, and ſeveral other princes of the Ottoman race, ſhared the ſame fate, beſides a number of the principal Turks whom he feared. Having thus by theſe bloody murders eſtabliſhed his throne, he ſubdued Syria and Meſopotamia; after which he turned his arms

againſt Egypt. That country had continued under the mamalucs for about 300 years, they having been conſtantly recruited from Circaſſia and its vicinity. Tumanbai their then king was not able to withſtand the Turkiſh forces, and he ſubmitted on the terms, that he ſhould be allowed to govern as viceroy to Selim. He was however ſtrangled very ſoon after by order of this odious tyrant; and a number of the Egyptians thereupon fled to England and other countries.

Solyman the Magnificent, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Selim, made himſelf formidable both to the Perſians and Chriſtians. He took Rhodes, after the knights of St. John had made a moſt gallant defence. The greateſt part of Hungary alſo ſubmitted to him, and he made himſelf maſter of the city of Belgrade. He likewiſe obliged Moldavia and Walachia to acknowledge him as their ſuperior lord. He was however unſucceſsful in his attempt on Vienna, and on the iſland of Malta, to which latter place the knights of Rhodes had retired. In Aſia he conquered Georgia, the ancient Aſſyria, Meſopotamia and

Suſianna: and his admiral Cheredin Barbaroſſa, was maſter of the Mediterranean ſea. His dominions extended from Algiers to the Euphrates, and from the further end of the Black Sea, to the extremities of Greece and Epirus. This prince drew up a book of rules for governing, and he is conſidered as the firſt Turkiſh legiſlator. He alſo adorned Conſtantinople with a magnificent moſque.

The reign of his ſucceſſor Selim II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the taking of the iſland of Cyprus, and the naval battle of Lepanto. The conqueſt of the firſt coſt the Turks 100,000 men; and in the latter 30 Turkiſh gallies were ſunk, 25 burned, and 130 taken. On this occaſion 30,000 of the Turks periſhed, 10,000 were made priſoners, and 15,000 Chriſtians reſcued from ſlavery. The loſs on the part of the Pope, the Venetians, and the king of Spain, whoſe ſhips and forces had united, was 15 gallies and about 10,000 men. But the Turks very ſoon regained their ſuperiority at ſea, and Venice was glad to put an end to the war by paying 30,000

crowns, and at the ſame time relinquiſhing all claim to Cyprus.

Amurath III. began his reign with having four of his brothers murdered in his preſence. Some time afterwards he had very near loſt his own life in a dreadful conflict with his guards, the janizaries. His courage however, backed by the chief perſons of the ſeraglio, prevailed; and after killing ſeveral of them, the reſt returned to their duty. The Turkiſh territories were ſtill further encreaſed under this prince.

The firſt act of his ſon and ſucceſſor, Mahomet III. was the ſtrangling 19 of his brothers, and drowning 10 or 12 of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant. He had ſome wars with the emperor Rodolphus II. but which led to nothing important.

Achmet I. who ſucceeded in 1603 or 4, was engaged in war with the Perſian king, Shah-Abbas, ſurnamed the Great, and likewiſe with the emperor Matthias. In both he was unſucceſsful, each of his opponents recovering a part of what had been before conquered by the Turks.

On the death of Achmet, the divan and janizaries, ſet aſide his ſon Oſman, then only 12 years old, and raiſed Muſtapha, the brother of the late monarch, to the ſovereignty. But not liking his conduct, they depoſed him in about two months, and placed Oſman in his ſtead. This produced a conteſt, which reſtored Muſtapha, who had procured the murder of his nephew. But he did not long enjoy his ill got greatneſs, being ſtrangled by the janizaries, who then conferred the crown on Amurath IV.

This prince made ſucceſsful war againſt Perſia, taking from it, amongſt other places, the city of Bagdad. He alſo entered into an alliance with Cha-Gean, the great Mogul, aſſiſting him with 40,000 men, againſt the rebellion of his ſon Aurengzebe. The next reign of Ibrahim Amurath's brother, was in fact conducted by the janizaries, who at length depoſed and put him to death.

In the reign of his ſucceſſor Mahomet IV. the city of Candia, in the iſland of that name, ſurrendered, after the Venetian garriſon had ſtood a ſiege of upwards of twenty-four years:

and during that period, various battles had been fought between the ſhips and fleets of theſe two nations, which I have not thought it neceſſary to ſpecify. Mahomet's reign was remarkable for the impoſture of Sabbatei Sevi. A rumour had taken place that a great event was to happen in the year 1666. This was improved on by Sevi, a young Jew of Smyrna, who was poſſeſſed of ſome wealth, had a little learning, and a great deal of eloquence, to which was added the advantage of a graceful perſon. He therefore declared that he was the long expected Meſſiah, in which he was ſupported by one Nathan, another Jew, who alledged himſelf to be the prophet Elijah. Moſt of the Jews in Aſia, and a good many of thoſe in Europe believed them; and twelve men were choſen to be the leaders of the twelve tribes of Iſrael. At length Sevi ventured to Conſtantinople, but he had not been long there till the grand Seignior had him taken up, ſoon after which he put his miſſion to the teſt: for, ordering him to be ſtripped naked, he deſired a number of perſons to diſcharge their arrows at him. Sevi not

chooſing to ſtand this trial, acknowledged the cheat; and it being left to his choice, whether he would be impaled alive, or turn Mahometan, he preferred the latter.

Beſides taking Candia, and ſome other iſlands from the Venetians, Mahomet took the field in perſon againſt the Poles in the year 1672. He was ſo ſucceſsful that they were glad to make peace on the terms of paying him a tribute of 20,000 crowns a year. But it was not very long before John Sobieſki releaſed his country from that badge of ſlavery.

Sobieſki, who was now king of Poland, in conjunction with Charles V. duke of Lorraine, came to the relief of Vienna, which was beſieged by Cara Muſtapha Mahomet, the grand vizir. The latter did not wait to be attacked, but retreated with ſo much precipitancy, as to leave all his baggage behind him: in conſequence of which he was ſoon after ſtrangled by order of his maſter. The Turks were now every where unſucceſsful, and the Venetians having taken Peloponneſus, Mahomet was dethroned by the janizaries. His brother and ſuc-

ceſſor Solyman II. was more fortunate: but in the next reign of Muſtapha II. the Turks were driven from all the conqueſts they had made beyond Belgrade and Tameſwaer. Imputing theſe diſaſters to the grand ſeignior, the janizaries depoſed him, and his brother Achmet II. was raiſed to the throne. He recovered Peloponneſus from the Venetians in the year 1715, and the territories of the Turks were never afterwards encreaſed. As the Turks had now paſſed the ſummit of their power, I ſhall here briefly ſpeak of them and of their government. They never blended with any of the people they ſubdued; but remained perfectly diſtinct in dreſs and manners. Fierce and haughty, proud and ignorant, they deſpiſed every other people. Throughout their vaſt territories, every office was beſtowed on them, and with the exception of the janizaries, they alone were allowed the uſe of arms. Amongſt other taxes paid by the enſlaved Greeks, every father of a family was obliged to ſend one of his ſons when very young to Conſtantinople, or pay a ſtipulated ſum of money. And it

was from this offspring of Chriſtians, that the janizaries were principally recruited, care being taken to educate them ſo as to make them the decided enemies of the religion of Chriſt.

There was no diſtinction in the Turkiſh dominions, but that of office. All rank and authority therefore aroſe and ceaſed, at the will of the grand ſeignior. But in fact he himſelf was a ſlave to the janizaries, who being his immediate guards, had his life at their command. When they thought proper to diſpatch or depoſe their ſovereign, they however invariably choſe a deſcendant from Ottoman as his ſucceſſor.

All the provinces were governed by baſhaw's, and on their reſpective deaths, whatever perſonal eſtate was left devolved to the grand ſeignior, who gave ſuch proportion as he pleaſed to the family of the deceaſed. There were many eſtates in the Turkiſh dominions given for life, all of which were in the appointment of the prince. Others were hereditary, but ſtill the ſovereign could diſpoſſeſs the owner without any form of trial, though this power

was ſeldom exerted. In ſhort, the only check on the monarch were his fears; and the neceſſity of making himſelf pleaſing to thoſe who had the direction of the janizaries.

There were 5 or 600 chiauſes or meſſengers of government, who carried all orders into execution, and at their head was the chiaus baſhaw, an officer of great conſequence. The mufti, though appointed by the grand ſeignior, was in fact, before him in conſequence: for, as repreſentative of their prophet, his mandate or Fetfa was obeyed without a murmur, it being ſuppoſed to be divine. It was therefore generally obtained in all caſes of conſequence. Being grand vizir, that is prime miniſter, was a poſt of peculiar danger, as any great miſcarriage in public affairs was probably his death warrant. He was at the head of the divan or cabinet council, which was compoſed of certain principal officers of the ſtate: but it frequently happened that he alſo commanded in the field.

The eſtabliſhed religion was the Al-koran, according to the ſect of Omar; and as by it

every Turk might have four wives, and as many concubines as he pleaſed, the practice of making eunuchs prevailed: for the women being all in a ſtate of confinement, ſuch mutilated ſlaves, were alone allowed to attend them. Indeed, in every thing the Turkiſh government was the worſt, that ever diſgraced a nation, that had any pretenſions to civilization. As far as it was poſſible, literature, and the fine arts were prohibited. And ſome of the nobleſt buildings, and monuments of antiquity were either deſtroyed or ſuffered to fall into decay; whilſt ſcarcely a new edifice worthy of notice, was erected. In the year 1715, the Turks had become very luxurious and effeminate: and they had nearly loſt that bold and warlike ſpirit, for which they were remarkable at the commencement of this æra.

Beſides thoſe countries that were under the actual government of the Turks, the princes of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Crim Tartary, paid tribute, and were conſidered as ſubordinate to the grand ſeignior, though he did not interfere in their government. The deys of

Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli alſo acknowledged a ſort of ſuperiority; but their chief connexion was with the mufti at Conſtantinople, who was obeyed in religious matters as the vicar of Mahomet.

SECOND LETTER.

PERSIA had ſeveral wars with the Turks during this æra, which led to no important conſequences. In the reign of Uſſum Caſan which commenced not long after the fall of the Eaſtern Roman empire, a religious conteſt took place, one party being of the ſect of Ali, and the other of Omar. This diſpute continued till the year 1499, when Shah Ruſtan, who at that time had uſurped the throne, put Sophi, a man remarkable for his wiſdom, but who ſupported the Ali ſect, to death. His ſon Iſmael Sophi, had however both the courage and means to revenge his father's fate, and at length ſeat himſelf on the throne of Perſia. Though the Perſians were at this period a conſiderable power by land, they had not in the year 1507 a ſingle ſeaport; the Portugueſe having at that time poſſeſſed themſelves of Ormus, the only one that belonged to the Perſian empire.

About the end of the 16th century Shah-Abbas, the great grandſon of Iſmael Sophi, rendered Perſia extremely flouriſhing. He alſo added greatly to his own power, by diſmiſſing a body of men, who, like the janizaries, under the name of guards, had become maſters of their ſovereign. This prince likewiſe regained ſome provinces that had been taken by the Turks, and in his reign the Engliſh drove the Portugueſe from Ormus, and reſtored it to the Perſians. Shah-Abbas erected many public buildings, rebuilt a number of towns, and made ſeveral uſeful eſtabliſhments: but his reign was diſgraced by many abominable acts of cruelty.

His ſon Shah-Sophi, who ſucceeded him in 1624, was ſtill more deteſtable for his barbarities; many innocent perſons being put to death by his own hand; and beſides the chief men in the empire, who for the moſt part were cut off, his mother and his queen were among thoſe who periſhed by his orders. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with the Turks and the Great Mogul; and all I ſhall ſay of the monarchs, who were

his ſucceſſors to the year 1715 is, that every one of them were abominable tyrants.

The ſophy's or kings of modern Perſia were abſolute, and as among the Turks, office alone conſtituted the diſtinctions in ſociety. The eſtabliſhed religion was Mahometan, according to the expoſition of Ali, and no other ſect of it was allowed; but for the moſt part all other religions were tolerated. A plurality of wives and concubines being eſtabliſhed, the practice of making eunuchs here alſo of courſe prevailed. When the reigning king became jealous of any of the deſcendants of a former ſophy, he generally cauſed their eyes to be put out, which was deemed a ſufficient bar to their ſucceſſion. The Mahometan Perſians differed greatly from the Turks in their treatment of literature and the fine arts; for being chiefly of Arabian extraction, they were, as far as their miſerable government permitted, rather encouragers of them; and they had ſome authors both in proſe and verſe that are ſaid to have been highly diſtinguiſhed.

The modern Perſians were greatly addicted to judicial aſtronomy, it being their belief that the ſtars, particularly the planets, had great influence on human affairs; and they therefore conſidered it of infinite importance in what ſituation the heavenly bodies were at the time of each individuals nativity.

THIRD LETTER.

IN Mogulſtan, after Tamerlane's death, many violent conteſts aroſe between his deſcendants: till at length Babar, his great grandſon, ſubdued the whole country from Samarcand to Agra: and under him were four diſtinct powerful nations, the chief of which was the Patan Mahometans. Amaium, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Babar, was depoſed by Chircha, the tributary king of the Patan Mahometans, the latter being ſupported by the Turks. He greatly improved and ornamented his empire, in which he made the Mahometan religion, according to the ſect of Oſmanlis, predominant.

On the death of Chircha, Amaium was reſtored, chiefly by the means of the Perſians, amongſt whom he had taken ſhelter. His ſon and ſucceſſor added the ſmall kingdom of Guzarat to his territories, as alſo a country near Agra, that was poſſeſſed by a prince, who al-

ledged himſelf deſcended from that Porus, who had oppoſed Alexander the great.

In the beginning of the 17th century we find Gean-Guir on the throne of Mogulſtan. He died in 1627, leaving the crown to his grandſon Gean-Guir, but Schak-Gean, the uncle of the young king, claimed and obtained the ſceptre.

The great mogul's dominions, which chiefly lay in India, were divided into a number of petty tributary ſtates. Each of theſe had princes who were ever ready for revolt, and who were alſo perpetually at war with each other. To keep them in awe, Schack-Gean divided his empire into four great vice-royalties, over each of which he placed a ſon. But this was ſo far from anſwering his purpoſe, that they united in depoſing their father, and then quarrelled among themſelves. Auringzebe the moſt able, and moſt cruel of them all, proved victorious over the other three, and put them to death. To his father, who died naturally, he then gave a magnificent funeral, and directing his arms againſt Viſapour, Golconda and the Carnatic, he added

them to his territories; and nearly the whole of that peninſula of India acknowledged his juriſdiction.

The various wars and murders of this monſter, who put even ſome of his own children to death, I ſhall not particularize. He had under him, the richeſt countries of the old world, abounding with gold and precious ſtones. The ſplendor of his court at Delhi the capital of his empire, almoſt equalled what you read of in the fairy tales. The mere throne, on which he ſat on days of ſtate, was ſuppoſed to be worth more than all the riches of any king then in exiſtence. But though gold and precious ſtones abounded, all real knowledge, and all the fine arts were nearly unknown.

Auringzebe, who lived to the age of 103 years, died in 1707, bequeathing his dominions among his ſons. This produced new civil wars, in which Azem the eldeſt of them proved ſucceſsful; and two of his brothers loſt their lives. Azem had a very ſhort reign, and on his death freſh conflicts took place between four ſons that

he left. In theſe one of them named Mauzoldin, who took the title of Jehander-Shaw, proved victorious; and he was on the throne in 1715.

The inhabitants of the great mogul's empire were of various religions. Many of them were Mahometans. On that ſide neareſt Perſia there were numbers called Guebres, who followed the tenets of Zoroaſter the Perſian law-giver; and who did not inter-marry with any other people. On the coaſt of Malabar there was a Chriſtian ſect, called Neſtorians, who could not be prevailed on by the Portugueſe to acknowledge the Pope. But the chief religion in India was that of the Bramins. They were a race of prieſts, deſcended from prieſts time immemorial, as they never married out of their own families. They had alſo a language peculiar to their order, called Shanſcrit, and no verſion being allowed of their ſacred books into any other tongue, their opinions could only be gathered from themſelves.

There are different orders of theſe Bramins, ſome of whom live in retirement, whilſt others mix with the world. One opinion taught by

them muſt lead to great immorality, that is, that waſhing in the river Ganges purifies from every ſin. All of them acknowledge a ſupreme God, who they ſay created Brama, and then gave him power to create the world. They have alſo inferior deities, to whom they erect pagods, in which they place idols, whom they fan to keep off the flies. They alſo dance before them, and lamps are kept conſtantly burning around them.

Another of their doctrines is the tranſmigration of the ſoul into animals, after death. Of courſe the Bramins, and their followers the Gentoos, abſtain from eating any thing that ever had life. It is alſo recommended to the women to burn themſelves on the funeral piles of their huſbands, which has been often carried into practice. The Bramins themſelves can on no account be put to death, but they are liable to inferior puniſhments.

They have the moſt extraordinary notions of their antiquity, ſurpaſſing on that head the wild ideas of the Chineſe and Egyptians. But they

are very liberal to other religions, alledging that God would not have allowed ſuch various ones, were he not pleaſed with the numerous modes in which he is worſhipped. Many of the lower orders of the Bramins, and the Faquers, a ſort of wandering clergy in India, impoſe voluntary puniſhments on themſelves, in order to perſuade the people that they are peculiarly holy.

The general character of the inhabitants of India, is that they are a ſlothful effeminate people, and as their climate eaſily produces the abſolute neceſſaries of life, they ſeldom look further. But I think there is another reaſon. Under ſuch governments as theirs, the exertions they might make would only be beneficial to thoſe who had the means of plundering them.

The Portugueſe were the firſt of the European nations who made ſettlements on the coaſt of India, and in the beginning of the 16th century they had five, viz. Mozambique, Malacca, Maſcat, Ormus, and the iſland of Ceylon. Over all was a governor, who reſided at Goa.

His court was kept in a very ſplendid ſtile; and a very beneficial commerce was carried on with the ſubjects of the great mogul.

Japan, it is ſaid, was diſcovered in the 13th century by Mark Paolo, a Venetian, but if it was, his account was not credited. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe viſited this very conſiderable iſland in the year 1538, and eſtabliſhed an advantageous trade. After the Spaniards conquered Portugal they continued and encreaſed this connexion; and chriſtianity was ſo far introduced, that three Japaneſe princes actually went to Rome, and kiſſed the foot of Pope Gregory XIII. But the cruelties exerciſed by the Spaniards in America and the Philippine Iſlands being reported at Japan, where their conduct had alſo been highly improper, the Japaneſe emperor prohibited chriſtianity altogether in the year 1586. The Spaniſh governor of the Philippine iſlands howevever afterwards prevailed on him to admit ſome cordelier prieſts to reſide at Meaco his capital; but they were ſoon expelled, and every trace of chriſtianity was then aboliſhed. This

was brought about by the intrigues of the Dutch, who wanted to ſupplant the others in commerce: and they now obtained a little iſland on the coaſt named Decima, on their trampling on the croſs, and ſwearing they were not of the religion of the Portugueſe.

The empire of Japan is certainly of great antiquity, and they alledge that Saka, their great legiſlator, lived 1000 years prior to the Chriſtian æra. In the emperor is united the regal and pontifical office. Idolatry prevails, and the objects of worſhip are encreaſed at the pleaſure of the monarch, as he may deify ſuch men as he thinks proper. The regular clergy marry only in their own order, and are therefore totally unconnected with the laity. But, beſides them, there are intinerant prieſts, who profeſs celibacy, and other extraordinary acts of ſelf-denial. Various ſects are of courſe amongſt them, but all agree in abſtaining from animal food; fiſh, fruits, and vegetables being their only diet. From their neighbourhood to China ſome of the higher orders have embraced the doc-

trines of Confucius; and every religion except the Chriſtian is tolerated. They have their ordeal tryals, from the want of regular laws, and are altogether a very unenlightened people.

FOURTH LETTER.

IN my laſt æra I had occaſion juſt to mention China. That country was certainly very early peopled, though unknown to the civilized nations of the world: and, it is ſaid, and I believe with truth, that prior to the birth of Chriſt, a prince named Fohi united the different petty Chineſe ſtates into one kingdom. The firſt event worthy of notice during the preſent æra, happened in the year 1628. Whaytſong the then emperor had been engaged in different wars with the Tartars, and alſo with his own rebellious ſubjects. The latter under the conduct of their leader Li, at length proved victorious, and making themſelves maſters of Peking, the emperor is ſaid to have retired to a private part of his gardens, where he prevailed on his empreſs to hang herſelf, and then putting a beloved daughter to death, he followed the queen's example. Whaytſong's other wives, and

the prime miniſter and eunuchs of the palace alſo deſtroyed themſelves; and two of his ſons, together with the other great officers of ſtate falling into Li's hands, were put to death. U-Shanghey, Whaytſong's eldeſt ſon, having the command of the forces in a diſtant province, however eſcaped. He then obtained the aid of the Tartars, and drove Li from the throne. But Shunchi, the Tartar leader, now thought proper to take the title of emperor of China, and though U-Shanghey at firſt acquieſced, both he and his ſon afterwards loſt their lives in endeavouring to regain the crown. Some other attempts by princes of the Chineſe royal blood alſo proving ineffectual, Kanghi, the ſucceſſor of Shunchi, became fully poſſeſſed of that empire. He then endeavoured to blend all his ſubjects into one people, by adopting the Chineſe laws, police, and cuſtoms, whilſt on the other hand he obliged them to conform to the dreſs and arms of the Tartars.

This prince was ſtill on the throne in the year 1715, and the jeſuits who had been per-

mitted to ſtay for ſeveral years in China, were at that time in favor with him. From them we have the beſt account of the Chineſe: and Sir George Stanton's account of Lord Macartney's embaſſy, ſtrongly ſupports the credit of thoſe miſſionaries, as to what came under their own actual obſervation.

The Chineſe government is patriarchal, the emperor as father of all, being inveſted with the moſt abſolute authority. Whatever he chooſes to command muſt be obeyed, and even in the article of his ſucceſſor, he may appoint whoever he pleaſes, though it has rarely happened to be any perſon, not of the royal blood. Every ſentence by any court civil or criminal muſt be laid before him, and is confirmed or ſet aſide at his ſole diſcretion. He has however general, and eſtabliſhed means of information and advice, from which he ſeldom deviates. All officers of conſequence whether civil or military, are filled by perſons who have been raiſed to the dignity of mandarins. This rank is obtained by education, and an exami-

nation as to qualification, there being no hereditary honor, except that thoſe of the royal family wear yellow ſaſhes. The mandarines are divided into two great claſſes, thoſe of letters, which is the higheſt, and thoſe of arms; and then again they are of different degrees, according to their talents and acquirements. To give an account of the tribunals and offices filled by theſe mandarins, is not neceſſary to the view I am giving you of the world. Suffice it to ſay the mandarins of letters are about 14,000 in number, and thoſe of arms amount to 18,000.

In the year 1715, the military peace eſtabliſhment was 700,000 men. Gun-powder is ſuppoſed to have been known to the Chineſe long before it was uſed in Europe. But the moſt remarkable thing in China is the great wall, which was undoubtedly built more than a century before the Chriſtian æra. It is more than 1500 miles in length, and from 15 to 30 feet high according to the ground it was to defend; and every where capable of

allowing ſix horſemen to march abreaſt on its top. It is alſo flanked with towers at about the diſtance of two bow-ſhots from each other: and the ſtone brick and lime of which it is compoſed, was ſo well put together that it is nearly perfect at the preſent day. The Chineſe are only allowed one wife, but as many concubines as they pleaſe; the latter however are in ſubſervience to the former. All the women are excluded from general view, and the feet of thoſe who are above the lower order, are ſo confined from their childhood, as to prevent their being able to walk. Divorces are allowed not only for adultery, but alſo for any cauſe if the court to which the application muſt be made thinks proper. But ſevere penalties are annexed to putting away tbe wife without ſuch a deciſion.

The father of a family during his life has unlimited power over the property of his children, and in a great degree over their perſons alſo. If a man has not children of his own he may adopt thoſe of otbers. Slaves are per-

mitted, but they muſt not be treated with cruelty. Where perſons are accuſed of any crime, their confinement preparatory to trial is made as comfortable as poſſible. Torture however ordinary and extraordinary, is allowed.

The police of the cities is uncommonly attended to, and few offences therefore happen; but from every account the Chineſe are a people, who have very little real moral rectitude of conduct; and they are only to be reſtrained from guilt, by vigilance and ſeverity.

Private quuarrels ſeldom happen in China, and when they do they are decided by boxing: indeed it can ſcarcely be otherwiſe, for the military alone are allowed the uſe of arms, and that only when they are on duty.

Homicide though accidental is puniſhed with death; yet parents are allowed to expoſe their children at their diſcretion. The goverment however takes pains to collect them, and prevent their periſhing.

The population of China exceeds that of any part of the world, and is ſo exceſſive, that

millions actually reſide in veſſels on the canals, lakes and rivers, without any ſort of habitation on ſhore. The whole country is interſected by canals, and an immenſe number of bridges, ſome of them highly magnificent, every where abound. Cities, towns, aud villages are innumerable, and Pekin the capital, is ſuppoſed to contain two millions of inbabitants. The roads are particularly attended to, and highly convenient: but above all agriculture receives the greateſt encouragement, and is conſidered the moſt honorable occupation; in ſo much, that one day in every year the emperor himſelf holds the plow, with peculiar rites and ceremonies.

The taxes of the empire which are chiefly paid in kind, are very few in number, and conſequently collected at an eaſy expence to the people. Though the population is ſuppoſed to be at leaſt 130 millions, yet the revenue thus raiſed, does not amount to much more than the value of 40 millions ſterling, of our money.

In China the moſt profound reſpect is paid ſo ſtation, through all its gradations; and the higher offices are attended with great pomp and ceremony. In the burial of the dead, every one however poor, is anxious to have it performed with as much reſpect and attention as their means will admit.

Sculpture is almoſt unknown, and painting is in a very humble ſtate, as is alſo literature, and all the higher parts of human knowledge. Their architecture is of a kind by itſelf, but in many inſtances is grand and convenient; and their temples, pagoda's, and public buildings, are highly ornamental. Bells of an immenſe ſize, are fixed in ſome of theſe edifices.

The Chineſe have no alphabet, but every word has a diſtinct character, ſo that it is the moſt difficult of all languages. They had the art of printing long before us, which was carried on by engraving theſe characters on blocks of wood. But in this, as indeed in every thing of the arts and ſciences, they are inferior to the poliſhed nations of Europe.

The Chineſe have no navy for offence or defence but an immenſe number of junks, and ſmall veſſels for the coaſting and interior trade.

The religion of Confucius the great lawgiver of China, taught one great Creator, with attributes ſuited to the Deity, and it ſtronly inculcated virtue: but the Chineſe have corrupted all true religion, and are become for the moſt part groſs idolaters. Fo is their chief idol, and next to him Changti, with a multitude of others. Their prieſts, who are called Bonzes, are ſuited to the impurity of their worſhip, and keep up their influence by every kind of mummery, artifice, and impoſture.

Little or nothing is known of the kingdoms of Siam, Tonquin, Laos, and Cochin-China. To the north of Chineſe Tartary, the Mongul and Manchen Tartars continued in their ancient barbarity, and ſtill acknowledging the Dalai Lama of Thibet for their Deity. A number of other Tartar tribes inhabited the country between them and the Caſpian Sea, who were

nearly, if not altogether, as barbarous and idolatrous. The chief of theſe were the Elhuts, the Calcas, the Calmucks, and the Uſbecks. Of the numerous Aſiatic iſlands any thing worthy of notice will fall in with the accounts of European navigation; and I ſhall conclude this letter by ſaying a few words as to Africa.

During the reign of John the ſecond king of Portugal, Ethiopia was viſited by Don Franciſco D'Alvarez, where he found a ſect of Chriſtians, who alſo practiſed the Jewiſh rites. The king of that country, who was called Negus, alledged he was deſcended from Solomon and queen Sheba. This prince actually ſent an embaſſy to the Pope, and received a Chriſtian patriarch from Rome in return. But the latter inſiſting on Negus's acknowledging his Holineſs as his ſuperior, was driven out of his dominions. Abyſſinia was much the ſame of Ethiopia, and both were nearly barbarous. As to the interior parts of Africa, they were certainly chiefly inhabited by negroes; but near the Cape of Good Hope there was a different race of people called

Hottentots, who were only remarkable for being the filthieſt nation in the world.

The dominions of the Miramolin or emperor of Fez and Morocco, ſtill continued entire, and it ſhould ſeem without encreaſing in extent, wealth, or population. Its government was abominable, being abſolute and purely military, without even wholeſome cuſtoms to controul the ſovereigns, moſt of whom were relentleſs bloody tyrants. The ſame character may with truth be given of the deys of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli: and all theſe ſtates were afflicted with perpetual revolutions as to the perſons who ſhould hold their bloody ſceptres. The three deys had conſtantly veſſels fitted out for piracy; and they ſeized on the merchant veſſels of every Chriſtian ſtate that did not purchaſe their forbearance.

All theſe Barbary ſtates continued to profeſs the Mahometan religion, and the moſt abominable vices were openly practiſed.

FIFTH LETTER.

CHRISTIAN I. who was on the throne of Denmark at the commencement of this æra, had declared for Trolle, the archbiſhop of Upſal, and his party in Sweden. Canutſon, who had made himſelf odious by his tyrannic conduct, was unable to oppoſe ſo formidable a combination. He therefore fled, and the clergy and ſtates then gave the Swediſh crown to Chriſtian, on the former terms of the union of Calmar. Upſal and the new king did not long agree, and the former being impriſoned, Canutſon for a ſhort time reaſcended the throne. Trolle however having obtained his liberty was able to exclude both Chriſtian and Canutſon; and the government was then veſted in a man of high rank named Steen-Sture with the title of regent.

John the ſucceſſor of Chriſtian in Denmark, put in his claim to Sweden. Various

wars followed between him and Steen-Sture and Suante-Sture the ſon of the latter, who became regent on his father's death. During this conflict John with his Daniſh ſenate declared, that the regent and Swediſh nobility had forfeited all their privileges. This was confirmed by the emperor Maximilian, who claimed to be lord paramount over both countries, as fiefs of the German empire.

But the Swedes denied the exiſtence of any ſuch power either in John or Maximilian, and made a ſucceſsful oppoſition, till Chriſtian the II. juſtly ſtiled the Nero of the North, aſcended the Daniſh throne. He entered into a cloſe combination with Trolle, who had been degraded by the Swediſh diet, and who had obtained from Pope Leo X. an excommunication of his enemies, with orders to Chriſtian to reſtore him to the primacy of Sweden. After ſome conflicts in the field, Chriſtian propoſed on hoſtages being given for his ſafety, to go in perſon to Stockholm to adjuſt all differences. This was accepted of, and amongſt thoſe who

were ſent to guarantee the perſon of Chriſtian, was Guſtavus Vaſa, a grand-nephew to king Canutſon. But Chriſtian was only acting with treachery, and arms were again reſorted to. During the conteſt that followed, the regent of Sweden was killed; and Chriſtian proving victorious, he was crowned at Stockholm. The latter then ſolemnly ſwore to govern with clemency; and as a proof of being reconciled to thoſe who oppoſed him, he aſked all the ſenators and grandees to a great entertainment, which was to continue three days. But this infamous prince, in conjunction witn Trolle who had been reſtored, ſeized on their perſons; and, as had been preconcerted, they were inſtantly tried on charges of hereſy. The mock tribunal before which they were brought of courſe condemned them; and 94 perſons, one of whom was Eric the father of Guſtavus Vaſa, were immediately executed on a ſcaffold, erected before that palace where they had been invited.. A general maſſacre then followed at Stockholm, of all the

known enemies of Chriſtian, and the archbiſhop.

The Swedes did not tamely ſubmit to the tyrant; and his purſe being exhauſted, he ſeized on two millions of florins, which the Pope's legate had raiſed, by the ſale of indulgences, in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. This meaſure he defended by alledging, the money was neceſſary to enable him to ſubdue thoſe whom Pope Leo had excommunicated. And at length, in 1520, the Swedes were forced to ſubmit to his authority.

Guſtavus Vaſa, who had never been liberated, now effecting his eſcape, determined to loſe his life, or reſcue his country. Chriſtian, who had alſo made the mother and ſiſter of Guſtavus his priſoners, in revenge ſewed them up in ſacks, and threw them into the ſea, where they periſhed. His own ſubjects however, rouſed by the repeated crimes of their ſovereign, at length drove him from the throne, in the year 1523, electing his uncle Frederick in his ſtead; who very ſoon finding the Swedes too powerful to be

held in ſubjection, wiſely abandoned that project, and contented himſelf with attending to the affairs of his own country.

Chriſtian III. who next reigned, perceiving his people ripe for a change in religious ſentiments; and being himſelf heartily diſguſted with the claims of the Pope, and the rapacity and profligacy of the clergy, ſet about a reform. In this he proved ſucceſsful, Sweden having before ſet the example, and the Lutheran religion was eſtabliſhed throughout his dominions.

In the reign of his ſucceſſor, Frederick III. another change took place. Prior to the year 1661, the conſtitution of Denmark was, a king, and the repreſentatives of the nobility, the clergy, the citizens, and farmers, each of theſe bodies meeting ſeparately. But theſe different orders had been ſo ill balanced, and their rights ſo little ſecured, that the nobility in fact had uſurped all authority. This they ſo groſsly abuſed, that the others preferred abſolute monarchy; and Frederick having acted with great propriety, they chearfully coincided with his

views. At a meeting of all the ſtates, after the nobility had made what reſiſtance they could with ſafety, it was therefore reſolved to make the king abſolute, and the crown hereditary; which was accordingly carried into effect. The two next monarch's, Chriſtian V. and Frederick IV. had ſeveral wars with Sweden, and the latter was ſtill on the throne in 1715.

SIXTH LETTER.

ALL that is neceſſary as to Sweden has been mentioned in the preceding letter, to the time of Guſtavus Vaſa'a eſcape. He for a time was obliged to conceal himſelf in the mines of Delecarlia, where he ingratiated himſelf with the hardy race of men that were employed there. He then diſcloſed who he was, and having procured a number of muſquets and ammunition, which had been but lately introduced into the art of war, he took the field. Several battles were fought before the conteſt was decided, but it ended in his being firmly ſeated on the throne of Sweden; and the abominable Trolle died of the wounds he received in one of thoſe conflicts. The popiſh religion was about the ſame time aboliſhed, and Lutheraniſm ſubſtituted in its ſtead.

Guſtavus from thenceforth reigned in peace, and by a wiſe and virtuous adminiſtration raiſed his country to a conſiderable degree of conſe-

quence. The conſtitution of Sweden at this time conſiſted of a king, and three other bodies, all of whom muſt agree in enacting any new law. 1000 gentlemen compoſed the firſt—100 eccleſiaſtics the ſecond—and the third was made up of 150 burghers and 250 peaſants, repreſenting the people at large.

Guſtavus had got theſe ſtates to agree to the crown deſcending in his male line, in conſequence of which Eric his ſon ſucceeded him. Eric was the firſt king who introduced titles of nobility into Sweden, and at length he aimed at making himſelf abſolute. This brought about his being depoſed, by his brother John, who obliged him publicly to put an end to himſelf by poiſon. John, being a Catholic eaſily got abſolution from the Pope for the murder of his brother: but he in vain endeavoured to reſtore that religion, and his attempts to introduce the rites of the Greek church were equally unſucceſsful.

Sigiſmund the ſon of John had been elected king of Poland, and on his father's death was poſ-

ſeſſed of both kingdoms. But by bad government, and attempting to reſtore the papal religion, he was depoſed in Sweden, and ſucceeded by his uncle Charles.

In 1611 Guſtavus Adolphus became king of Sweden; and from his numerous wars with Denmark, Livonia, Ruſſia, and the emperor Ferdinand, in which he gained ſeveral ſignal victories, he was ſtiled the Great; but dying in the midſt of his career, he did not obtain any permanent advantage for his country.

In 1632, his daughter Chriſtina, then only ſeven years old, was ſuffered to mount the throne, notwithſtanding the law that confined it to the male line. During the time ſhe held the ſceptre Sweden was extremely happy, and being herſelf learned, ſhe endeavoured to bring men of literature from every part of Europe to ſettle in her capital. By the peace of Weſtphalia, ſhe alſo ſecured conſiderable additions to the territories of Sweden. After having experienced the pains and pleaſures of a crown ſhe however preferred a private life; and having ſecured a ſufficient in-

come, ſhe reſigned in favour of her couſin Charles X.

Had Chriſtina really dedicated her life to literature, and the ſtudy of the fine arts, her greatneſs of mind in thus voluntarily reſigning a crown, would have juſtly entitled her to our praiſe. But her conduct was far otherwiſe, and has rendered her name deteſtable.

She travelled through different countries, imitating the manners of the men, inſtead of thoſe of her own ſex. She every where interfered in politics, and diſplayed the moſt vindictive diſpoſition, frequently threatening the lives of thoſe who diſobliged her: and at Paris ſhe had her paramour Monaldeſchi publicly aſſaſſinated. After this ſhe gave up the proteſtant religion in which ſhe had been educated, and embracing popery ended her days in Rome.

Charles X. was engaged in war with both Poland and Denmark, and he recovered the province of Scania which had been ſevered from Sweden for three centuries. His ſon and ſucceſſor Charles XI. overthrew the liberties of

his country, by means of a powerful ſtanding army, and in 1697 he left an abſolute ſovereignty to his ſon Charles XII. then only fifteen years old, who proved one of the moſt extraordinary men recorded in hiſtory.

Almoſt immediately after his acceſſion, the Danes, Poles, Saxons, and Ruſſians, entered into a confederacy againſt him. Far from being alarmed, the young monarch rather rejoiced at ſuch an opportunity of gratifying his paſſion for military glory: and with the aid of England and Holland who ſent fleets to the Baltic, he very ſoon compelled the Danes to make a ſeparate peace highly advantageous to Sweden. The Ruſſians had about this time beſieged Narva. Charles therefore marched to its relief, and having beaten an army of 80,000 men, with a tenth part of that number, he wintered in that city. This happened in the year 1700, when Charles was only in his 18th year.

In 1701 Charles obtained a victory over Auguſtus, elector of Saxony and king of Poland, whom he was reſolved to dethrone. For this

purpoſe he ſecretly negotiated with the cardinal primate of Poland, and approaching Warſaw was rather received as a friend than an enemy. In another battle with Auguſtus, though victorious, he broke his thigh by a fall from his horſe, which gave the former a little reſpite. But on his recovery, he obliged a diet aſſembled at Warſaw in 1704, to proclaim Staniſlaus Leczinſky palatine of Poſnania, their king: at the ſame time declaring, he preferred the pleaſure of beſtowing that crown to the gratification of wearing it.

The Swediſh monarch's two favorite generals, were the mareſchal Renchild, and Shullemberg, the former of whom was called the Parmenio of the Alexander of the North; and though Auguſtus was aſſiſted from time to time with large bodies of Ruſſians, the victories of Charles were ſo rapid and frequent, that he became fearful of loſing his electorate; and to prevent it, he at length agreed to a ſeparate peace, on the terms of giving up all claim to the crown of Poland.

In the year 1708, Peter the Great of Ruſſia, was likewiſe induced, from his loſſes, to propoſe peace; but Charles, elated with ſucceſs, returned for anſwer, he would treat with him at Moſcow. The talents of Peter were, however, far ſuperior to thoſe of his antagoniſt, and by his wiſe meaſures, he prevented the aſſiſtance that the king of Sweden expected from Mazeppa, a chief of the Coſſacks. At length the Swedes penetrated to a place called Pultowa, on the extremity of the Ruſſian dominions, in which the Czar had a garriſon of 9000 men, and a conſiderable magazine. Charles in vain attempted to take it by ſtorm, and Peter approaching at the head of 70,000 men, his ſituation became deſperate. But though he had only 13,000 Swedes, and 9000 auxiliaries, worn out with fatigue, and in want of every thing, he made ſo deſperate a reſiſtance, that his entire army were either killed or taken priſoners, except about 300, who eſcaped with him to Bender, a Turkiſh town in Moldavia. The immediate conſequence of this defeat was, the reſtoration of Auguſtus to the

throne of Poland, and the loſs of ſeveral places that had belonged to the Swedes.

The grand ſeignior ordered the royal fugitive to be received with great hoſpitality; and Charles preferring a camp to the accommodations of a town, one was pitched for him near Bender. From it he ſo ſucceſsfully repreſented the dangers that might ariſe to the Turks from the Ruſſians, that a formidable army was ſent againſt Peter. But it ended in a treaty, of no uſe to the Swediſh monarch. Charles, however, perſiſted in further remonſtrances, and at length ſo tired the grand ſeignior, as to receive orders to quit his territories. This he however peremptorily refuſed, and the baſhaw of Bender was then directed to uſe force. Inſtead of ſubmitting, Charles gave him battle at the head of his 300 men, all of whom were killed or taken priſoners, except a few officers and attendants. They then retired, with the king, to a houſe that had been erected for him near the camp. From thence they killed 200 of the aſſailants, till at length the houſe being ſet on fire, Charles, and the few who remained,

were made priſoners. The baſhaw then ſent him to a place near Adrianople, where he kept his bed for near ten months, not from illneſs, but under the idea of preventing any treatment unſuitable to his dignity.

At the end of this period, being acquainted by his ſiſter that he was in danger of being depoſed, he condeſcended to make terms with the Turks, and was eſcorted to the dominions of the emperor of Germany. That prince wiſhed to receive him with great magnificence, but he preferred returning to his own kingdom incog. and attended only by two officers. This happened in the end of the year 1714; when he found himſelf engaged in war, not only with the Ruſſians, but with the Danes, Pruſſia, and the elector of Hanover. During his abſence, Sweden had ſuffered conſiderably, notwithſtanding the great and gallant exertions of his generals Goertz and Steenboch.

In the year 1715, Charles had many dangers to encounter, and various narrow eſcapes in the battles he fought. He alſo loſt ſeveral places of conſequence, and he ſpent the winter

of that year, in concert with his chief favourite the baron de Goertz, who was nearly as mad as himſelf, in vaſt and extravagant projects, for the enſuing campaign; an account of which will fall in, in my next æra.

SEVENTH LETTER.

IN the year 1453, Ruſſia was governed by a duke, who was tributary to the Tartars. Very ſoon after that period, John Baſilowitz threw off their yoke, at the ſame time taking the title of Czar, and he and his ſucceſſors continued to enlarge their territories; but from that time till towards the cloſe of the 17th century, it exhibited one perpetual ſcene of civil wars: during which the great Boiars held the people, and I may add their monarchs, in ſlavery.

The Czar Alexis, who died in 1676, left by a firſt wife two ſons, called Theodore and John, and four daughters, of whom Sophia was the eldeſt. By a ſecond wife he had a ſon named Peter, and one daughter. Theodore ſucceeded to the throne, but being very ſickly, Sophia took on her the chief management, and highly ingratiated herſelf with him, and the principal lords of

his court; amongſt whom her chief favourite was prince Galliczin.

On the death of Theodore, in 1682, his brother John having the falling ſickneſs, the Boiars fixed on her half brother Peter; but ſhe was able to give him John for a colleague, and both being minors, ſhe obtained the adminiſtration, Galliczin being appointed prime miniſter.

When Peter attained to manhood, he ſtrengthened his intereſt by marrying the daughter of one of the moſt powerful Boiars, greatly ſuſpecting the deſigns of Sophia. Not long after this, a conſpiracy to take away the life of Peter was detected: and it appearing that ſhe was at the head of it, he ſhut her up in a convent. Galliczin, being alſo concerned in it, was baniſhed, and thoſe who were to have actually perpetrated the crime, were executed. Soon after this John died of his complaints, by which Peter became the ſole and undiſputed monarch of Ruſſia.—This prince, though of very rough and unpoliſhed manners, had an uncommon ſtrong underſtanding, and was peculiarly well ſuited to the

barbarous ſtate of that nation he was born to govern. He found it with a rabble for its ſoldiery, and devoid of commerce, ſhipping, architecture, refinement and knowledge. Yet before his death, he ſaw Peterſburgh, his new capital, a well built town, with 300,000 inhabitants, and a number of merchant ſhips belonging to it, together with twenty men of war. He alſo ſaw a beginning to all the arts then known in the world, a numerous ſtanding army well diſciplined and well officered, and inſtead of powerful Boiars, who afflicted their country with civil wars, he had a court of nobles, that yielded to his controul. He was, indeed, abſolute, and his people were in a ſtate of ſlavery; nor were they fit to be otherwiſe at that period had he wiſhed to make them ſo. But their ſituation was every where meliorated, and he laid the foundation of that conſequence, which Ruſſia has ſince arrived at, in the affairs of Europe.

Before Peter began his improvements, he reſolved to viſit thoſe countries that could afford him the beſt information; and having fixed a

regency in 1697, he ſet out in a private ſituation. Holland was the firſt place he viſited; and Amſterdam, the greateſt commercial city then in the world, peculiarly caught his attention. In order to make himſelf well acquainted with the art of ſhip-building, he is ſaid to have actually wrought for ſome time in one of their docks. Having examined, what he thought neceſſary among the Dutch, he paſſed into England, where he found alſo much to enquire into and admire. William III. then on that throne, paid him great attention; and beſides exhibiting to him a naval review, he made him the moſt acceptable poſſible preſent, that of an elegant yacht. He alſo allowed him to engage ſuch workmen and artiſts as he thought neceſſary to embark for Ruſſia. Having ſpent two years in ſuch enquiries, Peter returned to his own country, and inſtantly began to lay the foundation of all its future proſperity.

After the battle of Pultowa, and after reinſtating Auguſtus on the throne of Poland, he entered Moſcow, his old capital, and which he had highly improved, in triumph. For this purpoſe

ſeven magnificent arches had been prepared for him to paſs under: and his ſubjects were aſtoniſhed at the wonderful change in every thing that he had accompliſhed.

Peter never found himſelf in ſo much danger as his competitor Charles XII. involved him in whilſt reſident in Turkey. Had the force ſent againſt him by the grand ſeignior done all that was in its power, Peter and his army would have fallen into their hands, not only from their great ſuperiority, but from his want of proviſions. So conſcious was the Czar of this, that he retired to his tent, in a ſtate of the deepeſt deſpondency, at the ſame time ordering that no one ſhould diſturb him; directions that fortunately one perſon about him diſregarded. It is here neceſſary to obſerve, that the Czar had repudiated his firſt wife, on a ſuſpicion of infidelity: after which he had married a Livonian captive, named Catherine, of mean extraction, but poſſeſſed of ſuch charms and talents, as had gained his warmeſt affections. She had attended him in this expedition, and now ventured to diſobey his orders.

She then propoſed to make overtures of peace to the grand vizir; and there being no alternative between that and certain deſtruction, he authoriſed her to bring it about, if poſſible. She did ſo, as is ſuppoſed, by the power of gold; and ſhe thereby relieved the Czar from the greateſt embarraſſment he had ever experienced.

The terms of this peace were, that the Czar ſhould reſtore the city of Azoph, which he had taken from the Turks, and which was a place of great conſequence. That he ſhould demoliſh his forts on the Palus Mæotis; that he ſhould evacuate Poland—no more diſturb the Coſſacks—and laſtly, that he ſhould permit Charles XII. to return to Sweden. Charles, who had ſet out from Bender, to enjoy the ſight of Peter's being taken priſoner, flew into the utmoſt extremity of rage when he heard the treaty that had been concluded; and as the grand vizir afterwards loſt his place, it was probably from Charles's repreſentations.

Peter now exerted himſelf againſt Sweden, both by land and ſea, and making himſelf maſter of moſt part of Finland, and ſome other places,

he entered his new capital in triumph; at the ſame time pointing out to the people the great works he had carried on, and what Ruſſia was capable of being brought to. He was ſtill on the throne at the cloſe of this æra.

Lapland, which was divided between Denmark, Sweden and Ruſſia, is ſcarcely worth mentioning, except for the ſingular diminutiveneſs of its natives, none being higher than four feet and a half. They live in a wretched cold climate, and in a ſtate of ignorance and poverty; but they are a harmleſs inſignificant race. Their wants are in fact for the moſt part ſupplied by the rein deer, which gives them milk, and affords them fleſh meat. It is alſo uſed in all caſes where the draft is neceſſary. What is worthy of notice as to Ireland, will henceforth fall in with the hiſtory of England.

EIGHTH LETTER.

IN the year 1454, Henry IV. a deſcendant of Tranſlamare, mounted the throne of Caſtile. He and his queen, Donna Juana, a daughter of the king of Portugal, being equally infamous, the great vaſſals, with the archbiſhop of Toledo at their head, openly revolted, and raiſed Alphonſo the brother of Henry to the throne. Death depriving them of him, they choſe his ſiſter Iſabella, at the ſame time declaring Joan, the alleged daughter of Henry and his queen, to be ſprung from the latter, by one of her gallants. A civil war followed, which Henry endeavoured to compromiſe, by conſenting to Iſabella being his ſucceſſor. But in this he was not ſincere, and at his death in 1474, he left the kingdom to Joan. The nobles, aware that this would probably be the caſe, had brought about a private marriage between Iſabella and Ferdinand, the heir apparent to the crown of

Arragon. The party therefore that ſupported the claim of the latter was moſt powerful, and Joan ended her days in a convent. Ferdinand, on the death of his father, found himſelf maſter of all Spain, Grenada alone excepted. It ſtill belonged to the Moors; but the Pope having iſſued a bull, giving it to Ferdinand, and the Moors being in a diſtracted ſtate amongſt themſelves, Abdalla their ſovereign was forced to abdicate in 1491, reſerving to himſelf a ſpecified revenue, and to thoſe who had been his ſubjects, their lives, religion, and property. Ferdinand now took the title of king of Spain, and his Holineſs added to it that of Catholic.

Having thus obtained a united kingdom, he endeavoured to bring the nobles to be amenable to ſettled laws, and for this purpoſe he encouraged the aſſociation of the holy brotherhood, which had commenced in the 13th century. They were deputed from a number of aſſociated cities, and had fixed tribunals for the trial of offences, and alſo a conſiderable force to carry their deciſions into effect; whereas the nobles were often guilty of offences, and not only defied all

trial, but aſſumed to themſelves the right of deciding among their vaſſals. It was therefore wiſe in Ferdinand and Iſabella to encourage the former. But they were alſo friends to another court of a very odious nature. I mean the inquiſition, which was erected in Spain in 1480, under the direction of the Pope. It was confined to the trial of ſuch as were charged with hereſy, and all its proceedings were veiled in ſecrecy; nor was the accuſed confronted with his accuſer, or even made acquainted with his name. It is ſaid, that in the courſe of the firſt four years, after the erection of this infamous tribunal, 6000 perſons were burned under its deciſions. And a far greater number had been ſeized and impriſoned.

The Chriſtian inhabitants of Spain were, at this period, ignorant, idle, and extremely wretched. What little tillage there then was, the Moors conducted, who were not allowed the uſe of arms after their ſubjection: and as to commerce, it was confined to the Jews, who were very numerous. The latter had, of courſe, collected moſt of the current caſh; and Ferdinand, in order to obtain it, now baniſhed them from his

territories. The edict iſſued for this purpoſe indeed gave them ſix months to diſpoſe of their property, but as they were neither to carry gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones out of the kingdom, this had but little efficacy. 150,000 Jews are ſuppoſed to have in the firſt inſtance departed; though many afterwards returned, aſſuming the name and manners of Chriſtians: and numbers of theſe and their deſcendants from time to time periſhed, by the decrees of the inquiſitors.

This expulſion of the Jews gave a temporary relief to the wants of Ferdinand, but in its effect on commerce it greatly added to the poverty of the nation. To ſupply the exhauſted treaſury, the king now got a bull from the Pope empowering him to give diſpenſations to his ſubjects to eat meat in Lent, and on Friday's and Saturday's: and as the prieſts were brought to deny abſolution to thoſe who did not purchaſe them, this became extremely productive.

Cardinal Ximenes, the favorite of Iſabella, in open violation of the treaty with Abdalla, now reſolved to make the Mahometans embrace

Chriſtianity, or quit the kingdom. Numbers thereupon took ſhelter in Africa, whilſt others outwardly conformed in order to ſave their property; which afforded freſh victims to the fires of the inquiſition.

But the reign of Ferdinand and Iſabella is particularly famous for the diſcovery of the New World. Under their patronage, Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, after having in vain offered his ſervices to Henry VII. of England, and John II. of Portugal, ſet out in purſuit of a paſſage to India without going round the Cape of Good Hope. In this attempt he fell in with ſome of the Weſt India iſlands in the year 1492, and returning in 1493 with ſome ſamples of their productions, one of which was gold, he obtained the command of 17 ſhips for a new expedition, with the title of high admiral and viceroy of the New World.

On this voyage he diſcovered ſome more of the iſlands, but had not yet touched the continent. Thoſe he had left behind him in Hiſpaniola had groſsly miſbehaved themſelves, to the harmleſs

natives, who were at length rouſed to cut them off. Columbus finding the Spaniards had been the aggreſſors, inſtead of reſenting their deaths, conciliated the natives. And having built the town of Iſabella, and ſet on foot the working of the gold mines; he gave the command of the iſland to his brother Bartholomew, and returned to Spain.

Columbus found many enemies at home, where his conduct had been much miſrepreſented, and it was not till the year 1498, that he was able to obtain a few ſhips for a third expedition. He now for the firſt time fell in with the continent of America, which was ſo named after Americus Veſpucius, but who diſcovered it later than him. He then reviſited Hiſpaniola, where his enemies had made ſuch a party, that he and his brother Bartholomew were ſent in irons to Spain; and the ſoldiery, moſt of whom had been culprits in their own country, being unreſtrained, practiſed every ſort of barbarity on the unfortunate indians.

The confinement of Columbus was of ſhort duration, and in 1502 he was intruſted with a 4th expedition. He then viſited ſeveral parts of the continent of America, and amongſt the articles he now brought home were diamonds, pearls, ſilver and gold. But notwithſtanding theſe great diſcoveries, he was ill received by Ferdinand, Iſabella who had been his patroneſs being dead; and he expired ſoon after, leaving a marked inſtance of royal ingratitude.

The inhabitants of the Weſt-India iſlands, except thoſe of the Caribees, were of the ſame character. The women uſed a trifling concealment of the parts of generation, but with that exception, both ſexes went naked. The men had no beards, and neither they nor the women had any hair except on their heads. They were of a mild indolent diſpoſition, ill-ſuited to ſeverity, and totally unable to the labours impoſed upon them by the mercileſs and avaricious Spaniards. The colour of all theſe iſlanders was a deep copper; but the Caribees differed materially in their nature and diſpoſitions, being a fierce hardy race: and when the others were ex-

tirpated, they continued to exiſt, totally diſtinct from the European ſettlers.

I think it better in this place to give you a brief account of the Spaniſh tranſactions in America, though many of the events go beyond the reign of Ferdinand, as it will keep my account of them more connected. In the year 1518 Velaſquez the Spaniſh governor of the iſlands, ſent about 500 men, 18 horſes, and a few field pieces commanded by Fernando Cortez to examine into that part of the continent, adjoining the gulph of Mexico. There Cortez was informed of a great kingdom, not very diſtant, called Mexico; over which Montezuma was king, and under whom it was ſaid there were 30 inferior princes. Theſe altogether, it was reported, could bring three millions of ſoldiers into the field. But their principal weapons were bows and arrows; and fire-arms were totally unknown to them. The capital which was alſo called Mexico, was in extent and grandeur equal if not ſuperior to any city then in Europe. They had alſo gold and ſilver manufactures,

with many others: but iron being undiſcovered, the moſt uſeful mechanic arts were of courſe unknown; and they were totally ignorant of all the great branches of real knowledge. It is almoſt incredible, that Cortez ſhould have ventured to attack ſuch an empire, with ſo ſmall a force as had accompanied him. But the fact, and the event are too well eſtabliſhed, to be doubted. The field pieces, the muſquetry, and the armour worn by the men, gave the invaders however a ſupernatural appearance. And their ſucceſs at firſt was probably in a great meaſure owing to the ſuperſtition of thoſe whom they ſubdued.

Beſides the men under Cortez, he had brought with him a number of fierce dogs that had been trained to hunt the Indians in the iſlands, and they being animals unknown to the Mexicans, impreſſed great terror. The Spaniards had alſo after ſome conteſts with the Tlaſcalans, a republican ſtate, at enmity with the Mexicans; become their allies, and were aided by them in the field. Under all theſe circumſtances Mon-

tezuma, after a ſhort oppoſition, was induced to admit the Spaniards into his capital, and to conclude a treaty of peace. But the Spaniards who were at firſt almoſt adored as a ſuperior race of beings, ſoon convinced thoſe who had thus received them, that they were amongſt the moſt depraved of mortals. Montezuma, and his ſubjects therefore determined to get rid of them as ſoon as poſſible: and finding a new body of Spaniards were landing in America, he ordered one of his generals to prevent their joining the forces under Cortez, and the conſequence was that ſome of thoſe who had laſt arrived were ſlain.

When Cortez became acquainted with theſe events, he reſolved on a meaſure daring in the extreme. The authority of Montezuma over his people was deſpotic, and his perſon was deemed ſacred. The Spaniards by order of their commander, now ſeized this monarch, and confining him in their quarters, they made him iſſue ſuch orders as they dictated. In conſequence of his directions, the chiefs of thoſe who had

attacked the Spaniards that had laſt arrived, were now delivered up: and as a further atonement 600,000 marks of gold were given to the Spaniards in the city of Mexico, beſides a vaſt quantity of precious ſtones, and other valuable articles.

Cortez had gone far beyond the powers veſted in him by Velaſqnez, who was alſo become jealous of his glory. The latter had therefore ſent an armament of 800 foot, 80 horſe, and two pieces of canon, with orders to take the former priſoner, and afterwards to follow up his conqueſts. Cortez no ſooner learned this, than he ſet out from Mexico with all his force except about 80 men, and defeating an advanced guard of his countrymen, he ſoon brought the reſt to join his ſtandard.

Alvaredo who had the command of the 80 men left in Mexico, either received, or pretended to have received information, that the inhabitants of the city were about to riſe to reſcue their king. At this time a ſolemn feſtival was holding in the capital, which was

attended by two thouſand of the principal men of the empire; and Alvaredo commenced hoſtilities by putting them to death when in a ſtate of intoxication, at the ſame time ſtripping them of their rich ornaments. The Mexicans thus irritated beyond all bearing, attacked Alvaredo's quarters with 200,000 men, and they would have ſucceeded, had not Cortez critically arrived. Montezuma was now forced to harangue them to deſiſt; but he was killed by a ſtone, his people having juſtly loſt all reverence for a prince, who thus baſely ſought to preſerve his life by the deſtruction of his ſubjects.

The Mexicans now raiſed Gatimozin to the vacant throne, and the whole force of the empire was embodied to take vengeance on the Spaniards. But though many 1000 fell, with the moſt heroic courage, they were unable to ſubdue men clad in armour, and ſupported by cannon, and fire-arms. They therefore now determined to ſtarve the Spaniards. This obliged Cortez to abandon the city which was built in the midſt of a very conſiderable lake, and connected to

the main land by long cauſeways. In his retreat, he was in the moſt imminent danger: and when he at length gained the ſhore, he had to engage 200,000 men. They fell in multitudes before him; but their attacks were ſo undaunted and perſevering, that his forces were on the point of giving way from actual fatigue. In this critical ſituation he made a ſucceſsful attempt to gain the imperial ſtandard, to which they had a moſt ſuperſtitious attachment, and by ſecuring it, he decided the day.

Cortez now ſaw it was impoſſible for him to keep the city of Mexico unleſs he was maſter of the lake.—He therefore got his friends the Indians of Tlaſcala, to aſſiſt him in building brigantines of a far larger ſize than the Mexican canoes. By fixing pieces of artillery in them, he then gained an eaſy victory over the enemy, and made himſelf maſter both of the city, and emperor.

During this conteſt a few Spaniards were killed, and about eight taken priſoners: and the latter had been ſacrificed to an idol in their tem-

ple of war, according to a horrid practice in uſe amongſt them. In revenge for this the emperor Gatimozin was now put to a death of torture, which he bore with the utmoſt fortitude. Thus about the year 1521 Cortez, with a handful of men annexed the kingdom of Mexico, 200 leagues in length and 150 in breadth, to the crown of Spain: and though he gave a very conſiderable ſhare of the ſpoil to the emperor Charles V. he was received with very little attention in his native country.

The Tlaſcalans, who had thus aſſiſted the Spaniards were addicted to unnatural vices, and their women became peculiarly attached to the Spaniards. From this intercourſe, and that which took place in other parts of theſe new diſcoveries, the venereal diſeaſe had its origin. And it afterwards ſpread over Europe, and ſuch parts of the world as Europeans were connected with.

The Iſthmus that divides the South-ſea from the gulph of Mexico is only 25 leagues over, and the Spaniards were not long poſſeſſed of

that quarter, before they began to explore the neighbouring coaſt. Fame had brought to their ears, that a kingdom named Peru was ſituated there, infinitely greater in extent than Mexico, and much more abounding in gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Two Spaniſh adventurers, named Francis Pizarro and Diego Dalmara, neither of whom could read or write, reſolved to aſcertain the fact.—And being bold and intrepid ſoldiers they ſoon raiſed a ſmall body of men who were ready to follow their fortunes.

With 250 foot, ſixty horſe, and 12 ſmall pieces of canon, they undertook this expedition. The kingdom of Peru was at leaſt equal in civilization to that of Mexico; but its inhabitants were alſo totally ignorant of fire-arms, horſes, dogs and armour. They were highly attached to their Incas or ſovereigns, ſtiling them, and believing them to be the children of the ſun. Atahualpa who was now on the throne unfortunately for him liſtened to terms of negociation; and attended at the place appointed. His appearance was ſuperb almoſt beyond example. He was ſeated on a throne of gold inlaid with precious

ſtones: and 10,000 choſen men who were detached from a ſtill larger army, attended him; all of whom were poſſeſſed of valuable trappings and ornaments. The Spaniards now watched their opportunity to ſeize the Incas perſon, and that being accompliſhed, they made him iſſue ſuch orders as they deſired, which were implicitly obeyed. As they held out that his life depended on the gold and precious ſtones that ſhould be brought in, the wealth thus extorted was immenſe. But they had no ſooner got all that could thus be obtained, than the Inca was condemned to be burned as a heretic, by the perſuaſion of ſome friars who had attended: and this was changed into ſtrangling, on his conſenting to be baptized.

Theſe infamous Spaniards now divided the ſpoil, alloting to their ſovereign Charles V. for his ſhare 30,000 marks of ſilver, 3000 of unwrought gold, and 2000 more of gold manufactured. The fame of theſe acquiſitions ſoon brought reinforcements; and in a very ſhort time the kingdom of Peru, 30 degrees in length, and of a conſiderable breadth, ſubmitted to the Spaniſh

arms. The Peruvians had made but a few feeble ſtruggles, and indeed both they and the Mexicans, ſeem to have been a very inferior race, to the general inhabitants of the Old World: and both had the peculiarity of having hair only on their heads.

The conquerors of Peru ſoon fell out among themſelves, and Pizarro and Dalmara, with many others, periſhed in the civil broils that enſued. At length Charles V. allured by the gold and other precious articles that came from it, thought it worthy of a cloſer attention. A regular government, and courts of juſtice were therefore eſtabliſhed, together with the popiſh hierarchy: but the natives, both of the continent and the iſlands, were treated with the moſt ſavage ſeverity.

One worthy prelate of Old Spain at this period attempted to reſcue the Spaniſh character from infamy. This was Las-Caſas a Dominican friar, and a biſhop. He went out with the ſole view to enquire into the ſituation of the natives; and on his return he reported, that they were of a mild diſpoſition, and a feeble conſti-

tution. That they were obliged to work far beyond their ſtrength, and had been treated with ſo much inhumanity, that not leſs than 12 millions of people had periſhed in the iſlands, and on the continent, from the time of Columbus's firſt expedition. Theſe repreſentations in ſome degree anſwered the worthy prelate's intentions, and they were certainly afterwards treated with leſs barbarity.

Not long after the conqueſt of Peru, the Spaniards turned their attention to another country of South America. This was Chili, ſtill more to the ſouthward, and ſeparated by a vaſt deſert. There they found a hardy race of men whom they were not able to ſubdue; and after a variety of ineffectual efforts, during half a century, the Spaniards were forced to content themſelves with ſome ſettlements, chiefly on the ſea coaſts. Chili abounds with gold and ſilver, and has one of the fineſt climates in the world. The nature of its government is little underſtood; but the inhabitants were very uncivilized, and like the reſt of the native Americans, were idolaters.

All Spaniſh America is under a viceroy, who holds his court at Mexico. He has under him inferior governors, reſident at particular places, and who carry his orders into execution. The Spaniards are much in the ſame ſituation as thoſe in Old Spain, having certain courts, privileges, and cuſtoms, that are rarely broken through, though the government is abſolute: but the native Americans are in a very humiliating ſtate of ſlavery. Having thus given you a general view of this part of the New World, I ſhall return to the hiſtory of Old Spain.

Ferdinand, beſides getting the title of Moſt Catholic King, obtained a bull from the Pope giving him Navarre, and excommunicating John D'Albert its king: ſoon after which the duke of Alva, who commanded on the part of Spain, ſubdued that country.

Joana the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, married Philip, archduke of Auſtria, by whom ſhe had a ſon named Charles, and on the death of Ferdinand this prince found himſelf, at the age of 16, in poſſeſſion of all Spain, Navarre, the Two Sicilies, and the new diſcovered countries.

in America. In the year 1518, by the death of the emperor Maximilian, he alſo became entitled to Auſtria, and the ſeventeen provinces called the Netherlands; and he was now decidedly the moſt powerful monarch in Europe. Very ſoon after his acceſſion to theſe vaſt territories he diſmiſſed cardinal Ximenes, who had been his father's favorite miniſter, and the latter is ſaid to have died of chagrin in a few hours after. A conteſt now aroſe for the empire of Germany, between Charles and Francis I. of France. The former ſucceeded by the title of Charles V. and the enmity that followed between thoſe two princes, plunged Europe into various wars. The avowed ground of their firſt conteſt was, a claim ſet up by Charles to the province of Artois, whilſt Francis on the other hand demanded Navarre—the kingdom of Naples and Sicily—and the duchy of Milan. It is of little conſequence to go into the merits of theſe claims, and I ſhall only ſay, they were equally obſtinate in their opinions.

To obtain the aid of Henry VIII. of England was now the firſt object with both. In 1520,

Francis procured an interview with Henry near Calais, where the utmoſt magnificence was diſplayed on both ſides. On the other hand, the emperor had flattered the Engliſh monarch by paying him a prior viſit in England; and by his intrigues with cardinal Wolſey, he in the end got Henry to declare for his ſide of the queſtion. Pope Leo X. was alſo prevailed on to favor his views, by giving him a diſpenſation to hold Naples and Sicily; there having been a law made by a former Pope as lord paramount of thoſe countries, that no king of them ſhould ever be emperor.

Whilſt thoſe preparatory ſteps were taking, a rebellion in Spain occaſioned open hoſtilities, between the emperor and Francis. The Spaniſh grandees being highly offended with the Flemiſh miniſters, to whom Charles had committed the government on the diſmiſſal of Ximenes, formed what was called the Sancta Juncta. And on their appealing to the ſword, Francis ſent a body of forces to replace John d'Albert in the kingdom of Navarre. Neither he nor the nobles proved ſucceſsful; and an army ſent into France

by the emperor met a ſimilar fate, being repulſed by the French under the command of the chevalier Bayard.

On the death of Leo X. Adrian VI. was raiſed to the papal chair. This was through the intereſt of Charles, and Henry VIII. of England was thereupon nearly thrown into the ſcale of France by Wolſey, who had been deceived by the emperor, with a belief that he ſhould have been the ſucceſſor of Leo. Charles however ſoothed him by new promiſes, and at his inſtigation Henry made an invaſion of France, that had no important conſequences. The chief ſeat of the war was Italy, where Francis commanded in perſon. Oppoſed to him was Bourbon, formerly his ſubject and conſtable of France. The latter's abandoning his native land, was owing to the malice of the queen mother, whoſe overtures of marriage he had ſlighted: and in revenge that princeſs, under the forms of law and with the connivance of her ſon, unjuſtly ſtripped the conſtable of his eſtate: on which he offered his ſervices to the emperor, who gladly received them.

The battle of Pavia decided the event of this war. In it the French were defeated, with an immenſe ſlaughter, and Francis fell into the hands of Bourbon, who ſhewed himſelf unworthy of victory by meanly inſulting his priſoner.

Francis was now tranſmitted to Madrid, where his victorious rival treated him with a good deal of heighth; and without any ſort of kindneſs or generoſity. By the obſtacles raiſed by him, it ſhould ſeem he did not wiſh to give Francis his liberty on any terms. But Henry VIII. effectually interfering, the following treaty was at laſt agreed to. Francis was to give up all claim to Flanders and Artois—He was alſo to ſurrender Burgundy, and pay a large ſum of money for his ranſome: and his two ſons were to be left as hoſtages till theſe articles were fully performed.

Before the battle of Pavia, Pope Clement VII. who had ſucceeded Adrian, ſent a body of troops to the aid of Francis: and Bourbon being afterwards in want of money to pay his troops, reſolved to anſwer that purpoſe, and revenge himſelf at the ſame time on his Holineſs, by plundering Rome: which accordingly took place in

the year 1527, Clement himſelf being made a priſoner. This event was in fact highly pleaſing to Charles. He however pretended otherwiſe, putting himſelf and his court in mourning, and cauſing prayers to be offered for his Holineſs's delivery, when a ſingle line from him could have reſtored Clement to liberty. The terms on which the Pope was afterwards ſet free, will come in elſewhere.

Francis had ſcarcely reached Paris before he endeavoured to get over that article which related to Burgundy. In the correſpondence that followed, the lie paſſed between him and Charles; on which Francis challenged his antagoniſt to ſingle combat. This was rejected, and hoſtilities recommenced. At length however, Henry VIII. having joined France, and the Turks threatening an attack, whilſt the German empire was torn with civil diſſenſions, Charles reſolved to put an end to the war. The peace of Cambray was therefore concluded in 1529, by which the claims on both ſides were aſcertained. The chief articles were, that Charles ſhould relinquiſh Burgundy, and give up Francis's ſons;

in return for which he was to receive 2,000,000 of crowns: and Francis was for ever to relinquiſh all his Italian claims, and likewiſe his pretenſions to the ſovereignty of Flanders and Artois.

Charles now viſited Italy, and received the imperial crown from that Pope, who had been his priſoner, this ceremony not having been before performed. He then exerciſed his right of being lord paramount over ſeveral Italian territories, by which he raiſed a conſiderable ſum of money. To Francis Sforza he gave the inveſtiture of Milan. To Alexander de Medicis, Tuſcany. The Pope was obliged to give up Modena and Regio to the duke of Ferrara; and Charles had the ſatisfaction of nominating a duke of Mantua.

The emperor now returned to Germany, and for the firſt time headed an army himſelf. This was againſt Solyman the grand ſeignior, and proving ſucceſsful, he drove him out of Hungary. Barbaroſſa, a celebrated pirate, and who commanded the fleet of the Turks about this time, harraſſed the ſubjects of Charles in Italy and Spain;

and having made himſelf maſter of Tunis, by driving out its dey, he had become extremely formidable. The emperor therefore went againſt that place in perſon, with a powerful armament. It was taken by ſtorm, the garriſon and inhabitants to the amount of 30,000 being put to the ſword: after which Muley Haſſen the depoſed dey was reſtored, on the terms of being Charles's tributary. But Charles on this occaſion performed an act of true glory. He had reſcued 20,000 Chriſtians from ſlavery, whom he brought with him to Spain: and then nobly ſupplied them with the means of returning to their ſeveral countries. In a ſubſequent expedition which Charles made againſt Algiers, he was unſucceſsful, and obliged to abandon the enterpriſe.

Francis ſtill looked to the conqueſt of the Milaneſe. With him the moſt ſolemn engagements were only binding, ſo long as his intereſt required it. He now made an alliance with the grand ſeignior, the firſt that had ever been between France and the Porte: and war being renewed with the emperor, hoſtilities recommenced in Italy. Theſe were followed by a new treaty,

and Charles even viſited Francis at Paris: but the death of Sforza duke of Milan, without male iſſue, rekindled the war: during which the duke of Savoy, who had taken part with the emperor, ſuffered ſeverely; and Geneva, an imperial city, together with its territory, was able to throw off the duke's yoke, and to eſtabliſh its independence and a free conſtitution.

The Turkiſh and French fleets united under Barbaroſſa, who was at this time the dey, or as he was ſtiled, the viceroy of Algiers, now attacked Nice: but Andrew Doria, who commanded the emperor's ſhips, forced them to retire. This Doria, who was a native of Genoa, had formerly been in the ſervice of Francis, but had quit it from either real or ſuppoſed ill-treatment. From his good conduct on various occaſions, Charles afterwards rewarded him, by putting his native city and its territory at his diſpoſal. He might have made himſelf its king, but he nobly preferred leaving the choice of their government to themſelves: and having fixed on a popular one, they erected a ſtatue to Doria as the deliverer of their country.

Charles towards the cloſe of his reign, being exhauſted in money, determined on a general exciſe throughout his kingdom of Spain. As yet Arragon and Caſtile boaſted of their cortez, and they were for the laſt time aſſembled. This ſcheme of the emperor met with great oppoſition in thoſe bodies, particularly from the nobles, who claimed an exemption from all taxes whatſoever. They were therefore diſſolved, and in their ſtead 18 cities were to ſend two members each, to form a repreſentation for the whole kingdom. But theſe 36 were ſo decidedly placed under the direction of the crown, that the government of Spain may be truly ſaid to be an abſolute monarchy, from that period to the preſent day.

A truce had taken place at Nice, during which Charles threw out ſome hopes to Francis, that he ſhould have the Milaneſe. In order to ſecure it, the French monarch now informed the emperor of ſome overtures of revolt, made by the city of Ghent. The conſequence was, that twenty-ſix of its citizens ſuffered death; beſides which, numbers were baniſhed, and all the privileges of the remainder taken away. But Francis did not

get the reward he expected, and new wars followed between him and Charles, which were at length terminated by the treaty of Crequi, in 1544. By it, all the conqueſts from the time of the truce at Nice were to be reſtored. The emperor was to give his eldeſt daughter in marriage to the duke of Orleans, with the low countries, for her portion; or if that did not take place, the duke was to have the ſecond daughter of Charles's brother, Ferdinand, with the Milaneſe. The emperor was alſo to reſign all claim to Burgundy, and in return, Francis relinquiſhed his pretenſions to Naples, Flanders, and Artois; and he likewiſe engaged to join Charles againſt the Turks.

After the treaty of Crequi, the emperor was chiefly engaged in Germany againſt the Lutheran league; in which he was joined by his brother Ferdinand, king of Bohemia and Hungary, and pope Paul III. He gained the victory of Mulberg, in 1547, and made the principal Lutheran leaders priſoners. But notwithſtanding this, the reformers were every day becoming more formidable, and Charles at length tired with

the various buſy ſcenes in which he had been engaged, and becoming fully ſenſible of the vanity of all human purſuits, he reſolved to abdicate the throne in favour of his ſon Philip II. This he did in the year 1556, when he was only 56 years old, and he ſpent the two years that he ſurvived it, in retirement, and in the diſcharge of his religious duties, according to his idea of them. One very extraordinary act was, his placing himſelf in a coffin, and having the funeral ſervice performed in the exact manner it was to take place after his deceaſe.

Under Charles, the Spaniſh nobility were more poliſhed and better informed than any other then in the world, Italy excepted. But they wanted a ſoftneſs of manners, owing to their women being in a great meaſure ſecluded from ſociety: for they never allowed that free but innocent intercourſe between the ſexes, which has harmonized the other principal nations of Europe. As for the lower claſſes of the people, they were then, as they are now, idle, poor, ignorant and ſuperſtitious.

During the reign of Charles, Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe, who had left his own country in diſguſt, was employed to find out a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by a weſtern courſe. Having diſcovered the Straits, that bear his name, he entered the Pacific Ocean, where he fell in with the Ladrone and Manilla iſlands, loſing his life in one of the latter in an engagement with the natives. The next in command, however, purſu d and effected the original deſign, and returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. A queſtion now aroſe, to whom the Molucca iſlands, which were alſo diſcovered, belonged, under the grant of Pope Alexander VI.; but Charles waived his claim, on being paid a ſum of money by the Portugueſe.

Philip, beſides Spain, Navarre, the two Sicilies, the Netherlands, and Spaniſh America, had alſo the duchy of Milan, and as huſband to Mary queen of England, ſome influence there. The firſt war in which he was engaged, was with Henry II. of France, who was invited by pope Paul IV. to attack Milan and the two Sicilies. This, however, proved very de-

ſtructive to the French, many of their nobility falling in battle; and at length it terminated in the peace of Catau Cambreſis. By it Philip gained in full ſovereignty the towns of Thionville, Marienburgh, Montmedi, Hedin, and the county of Charolais. Other places that he thought dangerous, were to be diſmantled. Bouillon was to be reſtored to the biſhop of Leige. Montferrat to the duke of Mantua. The Iſland of Corſica to the Genoeſe. Savoy, Piedmont, and Breſſe, to belong to the duke of Savoy, but the claims of the French to Piedmont to be open to inveſtigation. And Calais was either to be given up to the Engliſh, or a large ſum of money to be paid for it. All the parties above mentioned had been the allies of Philip in this conteſt with France.

Philip, who was a gloomy bigot to Popery, now ſet about the utter deſtruction of heretics throughout his dominions. For this purpoſe the inquiſitors were ordered to proceed with the utmoſt rigour in Spain; the king delighting in being preſent at the executions that followed. But before he could have ſuch deſigns accompliſhed in the

ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, it was indiſpenſably neceſſary to change their form of government. Every province was diſtinct, as to its own internal regulations, Philip being merely the head of each, as duke, count, marquis, or ſome other title: and all of them had their own particular eſtates general, in which a ſtadtholder or governor appointed by Philip, preſided.

To carry his purpoſe into effect, he began with eſtabliſhing the inquiſition in 1565. As many of the inhabitants had embraced the reformation, this gave very general diſcontent; and numbers openly oppoſed it. Philip thereupon ſent the duke of Alva, with a powerful army of Spaniards and Italians into the Netherlands: and a tribunal being erected at Bruſſels to try all who had acted againſt his commands, the counts Egmont and Horn, together with eighteen gentlemen, were condemned and beheaded. William Naſſau, prince of Orange, who had the government of the provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friſeland, and Utrecht, was alſo found guilty, but ſaved himſelf by flight: and profeſſing himſelf a proteſtant, which was now become the general religion,

in the maritime part of the ſeventeen provinces, he openly defied the power of Philip. In the year 1572, the provinces of Holland and Zealand appointed him their ſtadtholder, and formally aboliſhed the popiſh religion. William and his brothers now exerted themſelves to the utmoſt againſt the arms of Philip: and in the wars that followed, William was the only ſurvivor of his family.

The duke of Alva carried the cruel orders of his maſter ſo fully into effect, that beſides thoſe who periſhed in the field, 18,000 were put to death by the executioner; and thoſe who ſucceeded him in the command, but too well imitated his example. Theſe ſeverities, however, ſtrengthened the cauſe of William, and before the year 1580, he was at the head of the ſeven United Provinces, ſince known by the name of Holland, with the titles of captain general, high admiral, and ſtadtholder.

Philip enraged beyond all bounds, now offered 25,000 crowns for William's head. This was anſwered by a manifeſto on the part of the latter, ſtating the conduct of Philip, and charging him

with the blackeſt crimes. Several attempts had certainly been made to aſſaſſinate William, but whether they were at the inſtigation of the Spaniſh tyrant, was never fully aſcertained. In 1584, William, however, at length fell by the hand of a popiſh bigot, who gloried in the murder he had committed, and who was tried, condemned, and executed.

Though the other ten provinces had not ſhaken off the papacy, they ſtrongly reſiſted the abſolute power claimed by Philip. They were, however, unſucceſsful in their attempts, and on the arrival of the duke of Parma, with freſh forces, they were obliged to ſubmit. Maurice, who ſucceeded his father William, prince of Orange, in all his appointments, had ſeveral conteſts with this duke. But being aſſiſted by queen Elizabeth of England, he at length fully eſtabliſhed the freedom and independence of the Dutch.

Whilſt Philip was loſing his territories in one quarter, he encreaſed them in another, by conquering the kingdom of Portugal. He was alſo ſucceſsful at ſea againſt the Turks, particularly at Lepanto, where his natural brother Don John

of Auſtria, commanded. But the greateſt effort of his reign, was an intended invaſion of England, and the armament that was prepared was called the invincible armada. It conſiſted of 150 large ſhips, containing 7000 ſailors and 20,000 ſoldiers, and ſailed from Liſbon in June 1588. Elizabeth's fleet was only about 100 in number, and her ſhips were of inferior dimenſions, but the ſailors made up for the deficiency, by ſuperior ſkill and courage: and in the engagement that followed the Spaniards were totally defeated. Some of their ſhips were taken, and the reſt being diſperſed, were wrecked by ſubſequent ſtorms, on the coaſts of Zealand, Scotland, and Ireland; ſo that not above 50 ſail, and about 6000 men returned to Spain.

Philip was alſo diſappointed in his views on France, as will come in in my account of that country. An attack he had made on Geneva, which had embraced the reformation, was alſo baffled; and the Engliſh not only plundered ſome of the Spaniſh ſettlements of America, but alſo took and burned Cadiz, together with a number of galleons that were found there. Thus

diſappointed in moſt of his views, and his treaſury being exhauſted, he at length agreed to the peace of Vervins, in the year 1598, by which he acknowledged Henry IV. of France, and ſettled his differences with the other powers, but Holland was not included.

When the addition of Portugal and its foreign appendages is conſidered, I believe the Spaniſh monarchy may be ſaid to have been at its ſummit in the reign of Philip. As to that prince himſelf, his character was odious in every particular. He was a ſevere haughty revengeful bigot, full of diſſimulation, and without a virtue or amiable quality to ſoften the darkneſs of the picture.

Philip III. his ſucceſſor, continued the war with Maurice, prince of Orange, from his father's death, in 1598, till the year 1609, when he concluded a peace for twelve years. By it he allowed the infant republic to keep Amboina, and ſome others of the Molucca iſlands, which they had taken in the Eaſt Indies: and he reſtored to Maurice the hereditary principality of the latter. During this reign, the kingdom was

every day ſinking in its conſequence, and by an ill-judged zeal for the Catholic religion, Philip III. ſtill further weakened it. Multitudes of the Moors had put on the ſemblance of being Chriſtians, to ſave their property. The inquiſitors, under the orders of the king, now attacked them with ſuch a perſecuting ſpirit, that between 6 and 700,000 of the moſt induſtrious inhabitants are ſuppoſed to have left the country, moſt of them going to Africa. The numerous colonies and armaments ſent to the new diſcoveries, had alſo depopulated Spain. And though a great deal of gold and ſilver was annually imported, the real wealth and ſtrength of the nation was annually diminiſhed.

Philip IV. the next king, firſt loſt the Brazils to the Dutch; and afterwards, Portugal itſelf, to which the former had been a colony, threw off the Spaniſh yoke. The French, with whom he was at war, had alſo conſiderable ſucceſs, which induced him to make the peace called that of the Pyrenean. The chief articles of it were his pardoning the Catalonians who had revolted,

and renouncing his pretenſions to Alſace. On the other hand, Lewis XIV. of France, to whom he had given the infanta in marriage, reſigned all claim to the Spaniſh crown, in right of that marriage; the reaſon of which you will ſee elſewhere.

On the death of Philip IV. his ſon Charles II. then a minor, ſucceeded him. Mary Anne of Auſtria, his mother, thereupon became regent, and Nitard, a Jeſuit, who was alſo grand inquiſitor, in fact, governed in her name. His ideas of his authority, and his right to it, were conveyed in a few words to the duke of Lerma, who had treated him with diſreſpect. "You ought," ſaid he, "to revere the man, who has every day your God in his hands, and your queen at his feet." This you will of courſe ſee referred to the doctrines of tranſubſtantiation, and the power of abſolution.

Lewis XIV. notwithſtanding the Pyrenean treaty, inſiſted that he was intitled to the remaining provinces of the Netherlands, in right of his wife, who was the offspring of a firſt marriage, whilſt the young king of Spain

had been born of the ſecond. He founded his claim on the law of deſcents in ſome of theſe provinces. But he relied more on 40,000 men commanded by himſelf and Marſhal Turene, one of the beſt generals of the age: and immediately taking ſeveral places of conſequence, he had them fortified under the direction of Vauban, the greateſt engineer that had appeared ſince the invention of artillery.

Lewis's ambition was ſoon conſpicuous, and the balance of power in Europe, having become a ſort of principle in all the nations of that quarter of the globe; the Dutch, Engliſh, and Swedes, formed what was called the triple alliance. They compelled France to make peace with Spain, by a treaty ſigned at Aix la Chapelle in 1668: but it is unneceſſary to ſpecify the terms, as it was almoſt inſtantly broken.

Lewis having ſecretly purchaſed the neutrality of Charles II. of England, and having alſo found means to render Sweden inactive, recommenced hoſtilities.

The Spaniards were ſo much exhauſted, that they made very few exertions; but the Dutch

who had joined them, and whoſe forces were commanded by William Prince of Orange, afterwards King of England, made a formidable oppoſition. In the Mediterranean ſea, the French fleet beat the Dutch and Spaniſh, conſiſting of 27 ſhips of the line and 19 gallies, though the former was inferior in number: and 12 ſhips of the allies were taken, ſunk, or captured. Though ſeveral of the German princes had declared againſt Lewis, he was able to take ſome ſtrong places in Flanders; and he fomented ſeveral civil wars in Spain: till at length a new peace was made at Nimeguen in 1678, by which Lewis was to retain Franche Compte, and ſome other towns and territories. But this was of ſhort duration, and a new war commenced, in which the Spaniards and the emperor of Germany were allies. The latter was alſo engaged in hoſtilities with the Turks; and after ſome battles of no importance, all parties being exhauſted, a truce was concluded between the Emperor, France and Spain for 20 years.

But Lewis, whoſe ambition was inſatiable, meditated freſh plans of aggrandizing France.

And the Emperor, the Engliſh, Dutch, Spaniards, Sweden, Denmark, and Savoy, now thought it neceſſary to join againſt him. This produced new wars in Spain, the Netherlands, and Italy; which were ended by the peace of Riſwick, in 1697, when Lewis was obliged to give up all, or nearly all that he had taken from Spain.

Europe was now engaged in conſidering the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, Charles II. having no children, and from his feeble ſtate of health, his death being every day expected. Lewis XIV. being married to that prince's half ſiſter, notwithſtanding his having given up all claim to it, as you have before ſeen, anxiouſly wiſhed for it. The courts of England and Holland, would by no means conſent to this, but they agreed to ſecret terms, by which he was to obtain part. This having tranſpired, Charles was highly offended at their daring to interfere as to the diſpoſal of his territories: and he immediately bequeathed them to the elector of Bavaria, the ſon of Margaret, the ſecond daughter of Philip IV. of Spain; though Lewis was

married to her elder ſiſter Maria Thereſa. This was however agreeable to the will of Philip IV. and to the Pyrenean treaty, which excluded the houſe of Bourbon. But the death of the elector, which happened almoſt immediately, and not without ſuſpicion of poiſon, created new difficulties.

France, England, and Holland, now made a new arrangement, by which part of the dominions of Spain were to go to Lewis, and the remainder to the Emperor: but to this the latter refuſed to accede, as he conceived he had a right to the whole, under the treaties excluding the Bourbons. Lewis therefore reſolved to aim at the entire ſucceſſion for one of his family, and by his intrigues in Spain, and his influence with Portocarrero archbiſhop of Toledo, the ſuperſtitious king was induced to leave it to the pope, who ſhould be his ſucceſſor. The anſwer of that pontiff being prefecured by Lewis, he declared that the welfare of all Chriſtendom, required that Charles ſhould leave his dominions to one of the houſe of Bourbon. He accordingly made a will bequeathing them to the duke

of Anjou, the ſecond ſon of the dauphin, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. by Maria Thereſa.

When Charles II. died in 1701, and his will was made known, the powers of Europe, and particularly thoſe of the German empire, England and Holland were ſtruck with conſternation. Lewis XIV. for a moment heſitated, whether he ſhould peremptorily abide by the will, or be bound by his former declarations. But ambition prevailing, his grandſon Philip V. was proclaimed at Madrid, and he being a minor, all the powers of Spain were under the direction of the monarch of France.

At firſt the emperor alone openly oppoſed this bequeſt, by claiming the Milaneſe; and having ſome ſucceſs, England and Holland entered into a treaty with him in September 1701; which was afterwards joined by the duke of Savoy, and the Portugueſe, and obtained the appellation of the grand alliance. The chief object of this was to lower the immenſe power of the houſe of Bourbon. For this purpoſe they reſolved, that an arrangement ſhould be made, that would for ever prevent the crowns of France and Spain

being placed on the ſame head. And the emperor was to have what belonged to Spain, in Italy and Flanders.

The chief events of the war that enſued from this time, will fall in with the hiſtory of France, ſo far as relates to Spain. Suffice it to ſay in this place that the Spaniſh dominions in Europe, every where became the ſcene of war: till at length the ſucceſſion was ſettled in 1713, by the peace of Utrecht.

Philip by it renounced all right to the crown of France, which in no poſſible ſituation was to be annexed to that of Spain. In default of his iſſue, it was to go to the duke of Savoy, to whom Sicily was immediately to be ceded, with the title of king; and France was to give up to him, certain towns and diſtricts on the continent, therein ſpecified, to wit, Feneſtrelles, Exilles, and the valley of Pragzillas. The ſovereignty of both banks of the river Amazon in South America, and its navigation was ſecured to Portugal. Spaniſh Guelderland and ſome other places were given to the king of Pruſſia, and his title to royalty acknowledged. The Rhine was made

the boundary of the German empire, on the ſide of France, but all fortifications immediately adjoining that river on the French ſide were to be deſtroyed. Naples, the duchy of Milan, and what the Spaniards had on the ſhore of Tuſcany, together with the Netherlands, were to belong to the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Bavaria to be reſtored to what he had loſt in Germany, except the Upper Palatinate, and he was in lieu of the latter, to get the poſſeſſion of the iſland of Sardinia, with the title of king. Some towns were to be given up to the Dutch to form a barrier. Queen Anne of England was to be acknowledged, as alſo the Hanoverian ſucceſſion; and the harbour of Dunkirk was to be demoliſhed. England was alſo to retain Gibraltar and Minorca, which had been taken during the war: and Hudſon's bay, Newfoundland, and Novaſcotia, were ceded to her. The Engliſh were likewiſe to have the excluſive right of ſupplying Spaniſh America with Negro ſlaves for 30 years: and one article of this treaty compelled Lewis to ſet at liberty ſuch of his ſubjects as were confined for their religious opinions. This treaty was im-

mediately ſigned by the ambaſſadors of France, England, Portugal, Pruſſia, Savoy, and the Dutch, but the repreſentative of the king of of Spain held out a little, and it was not till 1714, that the emperor acceded to it at Raſtadt, with ſome trivial alterations. Theſe were, that Lewis ſhould keep Landau, which he had been bound to give up, and that he ſhould not be compelled to deſtroy ſome fortifications on the Rhine. The elector of Cologne and Bavaria, were alſo at this time fully re-eſtabliſhed in their German dominions and dignities; on which the latter gave up all claim to Sardinia. By this laſt treaty, Lewis acknowledged Hanover as a 9th electorate of the German empire.

Of all the countries engaged in the late war, Spain ſuffered the moſt, and her civil diſſentions were not immediately healed. But in the year 1715, tranquility was perfectly reſtored.

The Spaniards were the firſt of the Europeans, out of Italy, who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their dramatic works, hiſtory, romance, ingenious fictions, and writings on morality. They alſo made ſome progreſs in aſtronomy;

but the fine arts were almoſt unknown, and in architecture, the palace of the Eſcurial planned by a Frenchman, and erected during the reign of Philip II. was nearly the only building worthy of notice. Notwithſtanding the immenſe wealth that was conſtantly flowing into Spain from all parts of the New World, it was at the cloſe of this æra, the pooreſt and moſt wretched of any of the European kingdoms. This is eaſily accounted for, from the numerous wars, foreign and domeſtic in which they had been involved. From the immenſe colonies ſent out by them: and from the numbers expelled and put to death on account of religion. Added to theſe cauſes, they had ſcarcely any manufactures, and were obliged to purchaſe from others, not only the luxuries, but many of the common neceſſaries and conveniencies of life. Very little gold or ſilver therefore remained amongſt them; and they might juſtly be deemed mere miners for the other nations of Europe.

NINTH LETTER.

FROM 1453, the Portugueſe continued to explore the ocean. On the continent of Africa, they found out the kingdom of Congo: and at length in the reign of John II. captain Diez, one of his officers, doubled the Cape of Good Hope. This prince wiſely made Liſbon a free port; thereby highly benefiting it and the kingdom.

In the following reign of Emanuel I. and ſurnamed the Great, four ſhips under the command of Vaſca de Gama, ſailed for the Eaſt Indies, and arrived at the city of Callicut on the coaſt of Mallabar, in the year 1498. This was the great mart for all the Eaſtern trade, with Europe, which was then carried on through the medium of the Red Sea. The Arabs were the carriers, and the Italian merchants ſettled at Alexandria, who employed them, ſent out the European goods, and obtained thoſe of the Eaſt in return. At firſt de Gama had been favourably received by the Zamorin or prince of Calicut,

but the Arabs foreſeeing the loſs of their trade, raiſed up ſuch intrigues againſt him, as made his voyage uſeleſs in every thing, but the diſcovery.

When De Gama returned to Liſbon, his account produced the moſt exceſſive joy, and a grant was immediately applied for, and obtained from the then Pope, of all they ſhould diſcover in the Eaſt, on condition however, that they ſhould every where eſtabliſh the Catholic faith. Thirteen ſhips, under the command of Alvarez de Cabral, were diſpatched on a ſecond expedition; and in order to avoid the inconveniencies of coaſting Africa, he ſtood out towards America, but without any intention of ſteering for it. By this means, in the year 1500, he accidentally fell in with the coaſt of Brazil, in South America, which has ſince turned out the moſt valuable of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions.

Cabral was at firſt received favourably at Calicut, but the Arabs were able to ſupplant him, and fifty of his people being maſſacred by the inhabitants of that city, he deſtroyed every Arabian ſhip in its port, and nearly battered down

the town with his cannon. Finding that many princes of the country, who were tributary to the Zamorin, wiſhed to become independent, a negociation was entered into by Cabral, and a further force being ſent out ſufficient to protect them, they allowed the Portugueſe to erect ſuch fortreſſes as they thought proper, and gave them an excluſive commerce. The conſequence was, the moſt rapid increaſe to the wealth of Portugal, to which every European nation now reſorted for the commodities of the Eaſt.

Alphonſo Albuquerque, who commanded the Portuguſe ſettlements, made himſelf maſter of Goa, one of the fineſt ports in the world; and afterwards of Malacca, which was peculiarly well ſituated for commerce with Japan, China, and the Spice Iſlands. The city of Ormus, at the mouth of the Perſian Gulph, perhaps the moſt opulent town then in the world, alſo fell into his hands; and, by theſe means, and annoying the navigation of the Red Sea, the trade of the Arabs was totally annihilated. The Portugueſe afterwards made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Ceylon, and the Molucca iſles,

the latter of which were remarkable for cloves; and the Chineſe allowed them to build the city of Macao, on the frontiers of their empire. The Venetians, who had been the chief importers of Indian commodities, reluctantly ſubmitted to this change, and for a time they meditated to join the Red Sea to the Nile, at their own expence, but they never actually attempted to carry it into execution. As for Albuquerque, he had been early recalled, and Emanuel, either from being jealous of his fame, or from miſinformation, treated him with a neglect that was ill ſuited to the great ſervices he had performed.

Under John III. who mounted the throne in 1521, the inquiſition was eſtabliſhed in Portugal, and perhaps in no country was its cruelty afterwards carried to greater extremity. He loſt his life in Africa, in the year 1557, having taken part with one of the competitors for the crown of Morocco; and his brother Henry, who was a cardinal, ſucceeded him, having firſt got a diſpenſation from the Pope. On his death in 1580, without iſſue, the ſtates of the

kingdom elected Anthony, prior of Crato, the next heir in the male line. But Philip II. of Spain claimed the crown in right of his mother, who was daughter to Emanuel the Great, at the ſame time alledging the prior to be illegitimate. Philip had however a ſtill ſtronger ſupport, in a powerful army commanded by the duke of Alva: and Portugal, with all its dependencies, in a ſhort time acknowledged his authority.

During the conteſt between Philip and the Dutch, the latter made themſelves maſters of the greateſt part of Braſil. At firſt it had been only uſed as a place to ſend criminals to: but a number of Jews, who had been plundered in Portugal, taking ſhelter there, and cultivating the ſugar cane, which they had imported from the Madeira iſlands, it became an object of notice. A conſiderable force was then ſent out, which, together with the exertions of ſome jeſuits, brought the natives to a friendly intercourſe. From thenceforth it became extremely valuable, both for its gold and diamond mines, and for articles of commerce. Beſides Brazil,

the Dutch alſo made themſelves maſters of the Cape of Good Hope, and nearly all the Portugueſe poſſeſſions of the Eaſt. Theſe loſſes, together with the tyrannic conduct of the Spaniſh viceroys, ſo irritated the Portugueſe, that they roſe in the year 1640, almoſt to a man: and expelling the Spaniards, they placed John duke of Braganza, who was deſcended from their royal family, on the throne. But Spain continued her pretenſions, and ſeveral wars were the conſequence, in which the Dutch and Engliſh took a part ſo favourable to the Portugueſe, that the Spaniſh court, in 1668, fully acknowledged the right of Alphonſo, who had ſucceeded his father John.

Though the Dutch had acted thus favorably, they kept all they had taken, whilſt the Spaniſh princes were poſſeſſed of Portugal, except Brazil, which was reſtored: and Goa alone remained to the Portugueſe, of all their ſettlements in the Eaſt.

Alphonſo was depoſed by the intrigues of his wife and his brother Peter.—The latter then aſcended the throne, and having firſt obtained a

diſpenſation from the Pope, he raiſed the wife of Alphonſo to be the partner of his crown. John the ſon of Peter, by a ſecond marriage, ſucceeded him, and was poſſeſſed of that ſceptre at the concluſion of this æra. In the beginning of the period we have been reviewing, Portugal took the lead, in wealth and commerce, of all the European nations; but in the year 1715, it had loſt all its ſuperiority: and it was only remarkable for the darkneſs and barbarity of its religious ſuperſtitions. I do not find that Portugal, at any period, had any thing like a free conſtitution: and conſequently, its happineſs or miſery for the moſt part depended on the vices or virtues of thoſe who happened to ſway its ſceptre.

TENTH LETTER.

CHARLES VII. was ſtill on the throne of France, and his death was rather ſingular. He had taken a ſtrong idea that his ſon Lewis intended to cut him off by poiſon: and under the terror of this impreſſion, he faſted ſo long, that he died in the attempt to ſwallow ſome meat he had at length called for.

Lewis XI. ſeemed to juſtify his father's ſuſpicions by the indecent joy he ſhewed on this occaſion. And by afterwards cutting off his brother Charles by poiſon, he ſhewed himſelf capable of any act of villany. He began his reign with diſmiſſing his father's miniſters, and was engaged in ſeveral wars with the great vaſſals, many of whom periſhed in the field, or on the ſcaffold.

The territories of France were greatly increaſed during this reign. Charles Count du Maine, the laſt prince of the houſe of Anjou,

bequeathed to Lewis the counties of Anjou, Maine, Provence and Bar. Lewis alſo found means to poſſeſs himſelf of Rouſſillon and Cerdagne, and he purchaſed the county of Boulogne. On the duke of Burgundy's dying without male iſſue, he took poſſeſſion of that province, as a fief that devolved to the crown: and he ſeized Artois, and ſome other parts of the duke's territories, under one pretence or other. He then attempted to get the remainder, which conſiſted of Franche-Comte and the Netherlands, by aſking Mary the duke's daughter in marriage for his ſon Charles. But in this he did not ſucceed, the Flemings prevailing on their young queen to give her hand to Maximilian of Auſtria, ſon to the emperor Frederic III. which occaſioned a war that extended beyond the life of Lewis. He died a lingering death, and expreſſed great remorſe for his crimes. It was to this prince that the Pope gave the addition of Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, as a reward for his ſuperſtitious reverence and obedience to the holy ſee.

In the reign of Charles VIII. the ſon of Lewis, the duke of Britany died without male iſſue, and the French monarch claimed that province as lord paramount, to the excluſion of the duke's daughter. This the Bretons determined to oppoſe, and firſt ſolicited the aid of Henry VII. of England. Failing in this application, they offered their young ducheſs to Maximilian, now king of the Romans, and who had buried his wife Mary of Burgundy. The propoſal being accepted, a marriage took place by proxy. But Charles now found means to ingratiate himſelf with that princeſs, and her principal ſubjects: and as the nuptials had never been conſummated, he made her his queen. This was the more inſulting to Maximilian, as Charles was to have been married to Margaret, the daughter of that prince, and who had actually arrived at Paris. A new war was the conſequence, in which the kings of England and Spain took part with the king of the Romans. But a peace took place, by a treaty agreed on at Eſtaples, the chief articles of

which were, that the county of Rouſſillon was ceded to Spain: and 745,000 crowns were to be paid to Henry VII. of England, beſides an annual tribute of 25,000 more.

Charles now ſet out, at the head of 20,000 men, to take poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Naples, which had been alſo bequeathed to his father, by Charles Count of Maine. There being in fact no regular troops to oppoſe him, he inſtantly made himſelf maſter of it: and was preparing to attempt the taking of Conſtantinople, having got the conſent of Paleologus, whoſe right it was, but who had been excluded from it. But far from being able to accompliſh ſuch a deſign, he found himſelf unable to maintain his ground in Italy. His army had mouldered away by the climate and diſſipation: and he with difficulty accompliſhed his retreat to France, in the face of a formidale confederacy that had been formed againſt him. His own debaucheries ſoon after brought him to the grave, in the 28th year of his age; when he was ſucceeded by his brother the duke of Orleans,

who took the title of Lewis XII. One of the firſt expreſſions of this prince, gave a very favorable idea of his character; for, being reminded, that he had the power of being revenged on ſome who had been his enemies, he replied, that "The king of France did not revenge the injuries done to the duke of Orleans."

Lewis reſolved to proſecute his claim to Naples, and alſo to the Duchy of Milan, which latter he claimed in right of his grand-mother, the daughter of John Galeazo Viſconti; the male line of that family being extinct. Having ſettled ſome differences with the emperor Maximilian, who did him homage for Artois and Flanders, and having renewed the peace with England, he croſſed the Alps with 20,000 men. Milan ſoon yielded to his arms, and acting in conjunction with Ferdinand king of Spain, Frederick, the then king of Naples, was forced to reſign his crown. The allies now fell out about the diviſion of the ſpoil. This produced a war between the kings of France and Spain, which was terminated by the treaty of Blois in 1504. It

ſecured Naples to the crown of Spain, and Milan to Lewis, but he was to pay the emperor Maximilian a large ſum of money for the inveſtiture. Much about this time Lewis prevailed on Pope Alexander VI. to give him a divorce from his wife Joan, without any juſt cauſe; the object for which it was obtained, being merely, that he might marry Ann of Britanny, the widow of his brother, in order to prevent that province being again ſeparated from France.

Pope Julius II. having ſet on foot the league of Cambray, Lewis acceded to it. The avowed object of this, was the deſtruction of Venice, and Lewis had hoped to aggrandize himſelf in Italy. But the Pope, as ſoon as he had obtained his own ends, gave peace to the Venetians, which produced a quarrel with Lewis. The conſequence was, a moſt formidable combination againſt the French monarch. It conſiſted of the Pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Spain, Henry VIII. of England, and the Venetians. Lewis in the event was drove out of Italy, whilſt his ally, John d'Albert, loſt his kingdom of Navarre: and by a treaty of peace

which followed, Lewis was not only obliged to ſubmit to what had happened, but he alſo bound himſelf to pay to Henry III. a million of crowns, which were due under the treaty of Eſtaples. Another article was, that he ſhould marry Mary the ſiſter of Henry, he having become a widower. This accordingly took place, and to gratify his young wife, he then entered into a ſcene of diſſipation, which quickly put an end to his days. Though this prince had been engaged in ſo many wars, he conducted himſelf with the greateſt attention to the happineſs of France. On one occaſion his œconomy being ridiculed, he nobly ſaid, he would rather his ſubjects ſhould laugh at his parſimony than weep at his oppreſſions. Senſible of theſe good qualities, his death was deeply lamented, and his name has been handed down, with the addition of his being the Father of his People.

Francis I. the next heir-male, and who was married to Lewis's elder daughter, now mounted the throne. In the beginning of his reign, he and the Swiſs fought one of the moſt bloody

battles recorded in hiſtory in proportion to the numbers engaged. It took place at Marignan in Italy. The Swiſs, who had 24,000 men, and who loſt the day, left half of them on the field of battle. And the French who were rather inferior in numbers, had 8000 ſlain. The conſequence of this victory, and the other battles in Italy, has either been mentioned in my account of Spain, or will fall in a future letter.

When Francis was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, the affairs of France appeared deſperate: but as you have ſeen, they were got over chiefly through the interference of Henry VIII. of England, who, in return, obtained a conſiderable ſum of money from the French adminiſtration.

Francis had no ſooner obtained his liberty, than he refuſed to ratify the treaty he had juſt concluded with the emperor: and the Pope not only abſolved him from an oath he had taken to perform; but ſet on foot the alliance called the Holy League, which brought about the peace of Cambray, as already related. The French mo-

narch however far from being ſincere, almoſt inſtantly meditated freſh hoſtilities. For this purpoſe he entered into a league with the Turks: and at the very time he was thus forming an alliance with the enemies of Chriſtianity, he was burning Lutherans for hereſy at Paris; and in an underhand manner ſupporting them in Germany. During the wars that followed, the Dauphin happening to die, Charles was charged with having cauſed him to be poiſoned, and was ſummoned to be tried at Paris, as holding Flanders and Artois as fiefs of France. This was founded on the confeſſion of Montecuculi, cup-bearer to Francis, who had been fixed on the rack, and in that ſituation had acknowledged he was guilty, and that he had been employed by two of the emperor's generals. On this evidence Charles, who did not attend, was found guilty by the court. But it is univerſally believed, that Montecuculi's declaration was only one amongſt many proofs, that no credit is to be given to what is ſaid under the impulſe of torture: and indeed it is impoſſible to aſſign any

rational motive for the emperor's committing ſuch a crime. Soon after this the treaty of Crequi took place, which Francis did not long ſurvive.

Anne of Britanny, in the reign of her huſband's Charles VIII. and Lewis XII. had firſt introduced the practice of ladies appearing publicly at court. Improving on it, Francis had eſtabliſhed a free intercourſe as to ſociety between the ſexes. This attended with innocence is highly beneficial to both, and certainly humanizes mankind; but Francis's own example was extremely profligate. The fine arts were at this time beginning to be known in France, and were encouraged by him; and he was himſelf conſidered as one of the moſt accompliſhed men of the age in which he lived. His character is, however, very low indeed in my eſtimation. He appears to me neither to have been governed by the principles of religion or of honor: and his conduct in many inſtances was equally degrading to the Chriſtian and the man.

Henry II. his ſon and ſucceſſor, very ſoon commenced a perſecution of the Proteſtants. He alſo created a general diſcontent amongſt his ſubjects by injudicious taxation. This was followed by a rebellion, which he was, however, able to put down: and he was likewiſe ſucceſsful in ſome conteſts with England. The conflicts with Spain are ſufficiently noticed, and it is only neceſſary to obſerve on interior circumſtances. The kingdom was now divided into two powerful parties. The Catholics, headed by the duke of Guiſe, a man of great military and political talents: and the Proteſtants, with admiral Coligni for their leader, who was not leſs reſpectable in either capacity. But Henry loſt his life before open hoſtilities commenced, by a ſplinter of a lance accidentally entering his eye, in a tournament held in honor of his daughter's marriage with Philip king of Spain.

Francis II. who ſucceeded his father, Henry, being a minor, the adminiſtration was committed to the duke of Guiſe and his brother the cardinal of Lorraine. The prince of Conde however

attempted to ſeize the young prince's perſon, but failing in it, moſt of thoſe concerned with him, and who were chiefly Proteſtants, loſt their lives, and he was brought to trial before the privy council and a deputation of the parliament of Paris, by whom he was condemned. Conde objected to the juriſdiction, inſiſting, that as he was a peer of France, he could only be tried by his peers. The chancellor de l'Hopital, and another privy counſellor thinking the objection valid, created a delay, during which Francis died, and was ſucceeded by his brother Charles, then only 10 years old. The ſtates of France being aſſembled on this occaſion, an apparent reconciliation was brought about between Conde and the Guiſes; and the adminiſtration was granted to Catherine de Medicis, the queen dowager, and who was alſo the niece of Pope Leo X.

An edict had iſſued in 1562, by which the Proteſtants were allowed to celebrate their religious rites every where, but in towns that were ſurrounded by walls. The duke of Guiſe, at-

tended by a numerous train of armed followers, the uſual mode of travelling in thoſe times, accidentally arrived at a place where a large body were performing their worſhip; and falling on them without any ſort of provocation he ſlew ſixty, and wounded, or diſperſed the reſt. Thus provoked the Proteſtants every where flew to arms, and all the horrors of civil war enſued. On the part of the latter, England and Germany afforded ſuccours, and the Catholics were joined by a body of Swiſs. Amongſt thoſe who periſhed in this conteſt was the duke of Guiſe who occaſioned it, and Conde, his principal opponent; the firſt being aſſaſſinated, and the latter falling in battle. At length a peace was concluded in 1570, apparently favorable to the Proteſtants. But Charles IX. who had attained to manhood, and his mother, were meditating their utter deſtruction; and the better to lull them into ſecurity, Charles gave his ſiſter in marriage to Henry king of Navarre, their then moſt diſtinguiſhed leader.

The feaſt of St. Bartholomew in the year 1572, was now fixed on for a general maſſacre. Secret orders were accordingly given for its commencing at the ſame time throughout the kingdom. Theſe were too well obeyed; but ſome of the governors and commanders to whom they were ſent, had the courage and virtue to refuſe, returning for anſwer, that they were ready to die for their ſovereign, but that they could not ſtoop to be aſſaſſins. 60,000 Proteſtants are ſaid to have periſhed on this occaſion, one of whom was the brave admiral Coligni, and Charles took an active and perſonal part in the horrid ſcene.

Whilſt the court attempted to place theſe dreadful acts to the ſcore of religious zeal, it exhibited the moſt abominable profligacy. Catharine de Medicis, who was a moſt abandoned woman, was imitated by the ladies of her court, and to the moſt licentious gallantries between the ſexes, were added the Italian practiſes of poiſoning and aſſaſſination. To ſupply the expences of the court, every place was publicly ſold; and in ſhort, venality, cruelty, vice, villany, and a groſs ſuperſtition, peculiarly characteriſed this deteſtable reign.

Many of the Proteſtants, who had eſcaped the maſſacre, took ſhelter in Rochelle, the ſtrongeſt town in their poſſeſſion, and they were ſtill very nmerous in ſeveral parts of Franee. But Henry of Navarre was in confinement, as was alſo Henry prince of Conde, the ſon of their former chief, and both had ſaved their lives by profeſſing themſelves Catholics. This was the ſituation of affairs, when Charles died in 1574, at the age of twenty-five, on which his brother Henry duke of Anjou king of Poland, aſcended the throne. Much about the ſame time Conde made his eſcape. He then renounced the Catholic religion, and put himſelf at the head of the Proteſtants : ſome time after which, Henry of Navarre alſo procured his liberty, and followed the example.

Henry III. perſiſted in deſtroying all who denied the papacy, and the conduct of the war was chiefly committed to Henry the then duke of Guiſe. But beſides the great ſupport the proteſtants received from Henry of Navarre and Conde, a conſiderable German force came to

their aid, and the French treaſury being exhauſted, the king was at length obliged to grant all their demands. He conſented that they ſhould have the free exerciſe of their religion, an equal ſhare in the parliaments, which were at this time in fact the courts of ſupreme juſtice only, and were ſeven in number, viz. Paris, Toulouſe, Grenoble, Aix, Rouen, Dijon and Rennes. He alſo denied (though falſely) his having any hand in the maſſacre of St. Bartholomew, and he exempted the children of thoſe who periſhed on that occaſion, from all taxes for ſix years. The fame of Coligni was publicly reſtored, and he agreed to pay a ſtipulated ſum to Caſimir, prince palatine, who commanded the German forces, and who remained for three months in Burgundy and Champagne, until he was ſatisfied.

The cardinal of Lorraine and the duke of Guiſe his nephew, highly diſpleaſed with this treaty, formed what was called the League, which was ſigned by the chief Catholics throughout the kingdom. Freſh conteſts followed, but as the court ſtood neuter nothing material happened. The fact was, that the king almoſt equally dreaded both

parties. He well knew he had made himſelf odious by his debaucheries, new taxes, and infamous government, and he had particularly offended the ancient nobility by giving the title of duke to his favorites, Ioieuſe and d'Epernon. To leſſen his unpopularity, he ſometimes aſſumed the appearance of piety by putting on a monaſtic habit, with beads at his girdle, and a whip of diſciplining in his hand; but this hypocriſy only encreaſed the univerſal deteſtation.

Pope Sixtus V. now thought proper to iſſue a bull againſt Henry of Navarre, and the prince of Conde, in which he ſtiled them a ſpurious and execrable generation of the houſe of Bourbon, and declared them incapable of ſucceeding to the throne. The league inſtantly avowed themſelves the friend of the Pope: and the king thinking that the ſafeſt ſide, did the ſame. Henry of Navarre had even an enemy in Margaret his own queen, who ſtirred up ſeveral of his ſubjects againſt him. But his own and his followers courage prevailing, he gained a great victory over the French king's forces at Coutras.

Soon after this the prince of Conde died, and his ſteward being tried for poiſoning him, was condemned and executed. Much about the ſame time the duke of Guiſe beat a body of Germans, who were going to the aid of Henry of Navarre. This war was called the war of the three Henry's, for in fact Henry duke of Guiſe, the commander of the league, had very different objects in view from thoſe of his king.

In the following year, 1588, the Guiſes openly avowed their purpoſes. They demanded of the king, the publication of the deciſion of the council of Trent—the eſtabliſhment of the inquiſition—the confiſcation of the eſtates of the chiefs of the Hugonots, to reward the chiefs of the league—the exile of ſuch of Henry's favorites as they ſhould name, and that he ſhould put certain towns into their hands, to ſecure the performance of theſe articles. They well knew the ſentiments of Paris before they ventured to make ſuch propoſals, and on the king's heſitating, that capital inſtantly declared for the Guiſes.

Catherine de Medicis now interfered, and at length brought about a nominal peace between them: but in that very moment, the king in his own mind reſolved on their deſtruction.

To ſuch a heighth had the practice of aſſaſſination ariſen, that there was actually a body of men, entertained at court, profeſſedly ready to obey any order, and who were termed men of buſineſs and ſervice. Some of theſe readily put the duke to death; but they heſitated at killing a cardinal. He was however diſpatched by a part of the guards. Theſe murders raiſed almoſt a general revolt, and even the Pope excommunicated the king. The doctors of the Sorbonne depoſed him, and declared his ſubjects free from their allegiance. The prieſts refuſed abſolution to all who acknowledged his authority. And the parliament of Paris ordered indictments againſt him, by the name of Henry of Valois, heretofore king of France and Poland.

Deſerted by all who had formerly been on his ſide, he ſolicited the aid of Henry of Navarre, the heir apparent to the crown; and by his

means an army was raiſed ſufficient to enable them to beſiege Paris. In this ſituation Henry III. was aſſaſſinated by Clement a favorite prieſt; who was immediately diſpatched by the guards. The Pariſians now conſidered Clement as a ſaint and martyr, and his image was placed upon their altars: whilſt Pope Sixtus V. compared this enterprize, to the incarnation of the word, and the reſurrection of Chriſt.

Henry king of Navarre now took the title of Henry IV. of France: but being conſidered a Proteſtant, almoſt all the royal army deſerted him, and he was forced to raiſe the ſiege. The duke of Mayne, at the head of the forces of the league, purſued him, at the ſame time proclaiming the cardinal of Bourbon their king, by the name of Charles X. Elizabeth of England at this critical period, not only ſent money, but 4000 ſoldiers, under lord Willoughby: and though the duke of Mayne had been reinforced by a body of Spaniſh troops, Henry gained a complete victory. In the onſet Henry exclaimed, "that if his army loſt ſight of their ſtandard,

they ſhould rally round the white feather in his hat, for they would find it in the path of glory." But after the victory was certain, he was ſtill more praiſe-worthy, in inſtantly giving orders to ſpare his ſubjects.

Henry followed up his ſucceſs by beſieging Paris, which he could have ſtarved, but he not only permitted the old men, women and children to leave the town, but winked at proviſions going in, in hopes of prevailing by negotiation; declaring he would rather relinquiſh the ſiege, than gain Paris by the loſs of its citizens. The enemies of Henry however became extremely powerful, and he was obliged to retreat. The Pope alſo declared him a relapſed heretic, and not only ordered all Catholics to abandon him, but furniſhed men and money againſt him: and he would have been overpowered, but for the freſh ſuccours furniſhed by England. After different battles with various ſucceſs, in which the duke of Mayne was ſupported by the Spaniards, it was reſolved by the Pope, the king of Spain, the duke of Mayne, and a council of 16 who were choſen by the Pariſians, and had long go-

verned that city, that an aſſembly of the ſtates of France ſhould be called, for the purpoſe of electing a king. In this meeting Henry's party was uppermoſt; but he found thoſe that were Catholic wavering, and being preſſed to declare himſelf poſitively on the ſcore of religion, his ambition got the better of his principles, and he ſolemnly abjured the Proteſtant faith. But his ſincerity being doubted, ſeveral attempts were made to aſſaſſinate him, and John Chaſtel, a young man who actually ſtruck out one of his teeth, with a knife he had aimed at his throat, was taken and executed: and it appearing that he had been ſet on by the jeſuits, the latter were baniſhed the kingdom. The mildneſs of Henry's government reconciled many who had been moſt inimical to him. Even the duke of Mayne was forgiven, and treated with ſo much generoſity, that he was ever after a loyal ſubject.

Though Henry had made his peace with the Pope, he had ſtill ſome powerful enemies to contend with. The dukes of Savoy and Mercœur, and the archduke Albert who commanded the Spaniſh forces in the Netherlands, were at

the head of powerful armies. Theſe he was ill able to oppoſe, his treaſury being exhauſted. But he had appointed a man to be his miniſter of finance, that was equal to all his emergencies. This was the marquis of Roſni, afterwards duke of Sully; who ſoon found means to raiſe the neceſſary loans; and with the further aſſiſtance of Elizabeth of England, Henry was ſoon in a condition to bid defiance to all his enemies. On this change in his affairs the duke of Mercœur ſolicited peace, at the ſame time offering his only daughter in marriage to Cæſar, the natural ſon of Henry by a favorite miſtreſs Gabrielle D'Etrees, with three duchies as her portion. Theſe terms being acceded to, he had only Spain and the duke of Savoy to contend wirh: and at length in the year 1597, he found himſelf in the full and peaceable poſſeſſion of his kingdom. Not only his Catholic, but his Proteſtant ſubjects were now ſatisfied: for by an edict, called the Edict of Nantz, the latter were allowed the free exerciſe of their religion—a proper ſhare in the adminiſtration of juſtice—and all employ-

ments of truſt, profit, and honor, were open to them.

Henry now found it neceſſary to make a ſeparate peace with Philip king of Spain, which included the duke of Savoy, having firſt endeavoured in vain to prevail on his allies, England and Holland, to accede to it. In this, his ſituation juſtified him, as France called aloud for a reſpite from the dreadful wars, civil and foreign, with which ſhe had been ſo long diſtracted. This treaty was concluded at Vervins, in 1598, and by it Philip II. reſtored all that he had taken from France.

Henry now diligently ſet about the reform of abuſes, in which he was more than ſeconded by Sully his faithful miniſter. It is aſtoniſhing what their exertions for a few years performed. At the peace of Vervins, the country was deſolate—the crown loaded with debts and penſions—the nobility unaccuſtomed to almoſt any kind of ſubordination—and the people poor and miſerable. But before the end of his reign, induſtry and comfort were every where ſeen—agriculture and manufactures began to flouriſh—the

debts of the crown were paid off—all uſeleſs expenditures laid aſide—the taxes light, and collected at the ſmalleſt poſſible expence—the laws enforced on every order in the nation—the people happy and contented—and a treaſury with a ſufficiency in it for any ſudden emergency. Thus, by the exertions of a good king, and an able and virtuous miniſter, France, from being the moſt wretched country in Europe, became one of the happieſt then in the world.

The houſe of Auſtria, as you have ſeen in the hiſtory of Spain, had obtained a moſt exorbitant degree of power; and even ſince the peace of Vervins had ſhewn an enmity to France in more inſtances than one. Henry therefore, thought it his duty to interfere in a queſtion that had ariſen, as to the ſucceſſion of the duchies of Cleves and Juliers: and he prepared a powerful army, which he was about to head, when he fell by the hands of an aſſaſſin. This man's name was Ravaillac, who attacked him in his carriage, and ſtabbed him to the heart. Thoſe that Henry was about to aid, were chiefly Proteſtants, which

was what actuated this bigot: and he ſuffered a death of torture, glorying in the act.

Henry was, as you have ſeen from his hiſtory, poſſeſſed of all the great and good qualities that adorn a throne, with the ſingle exception of that of gallantry: but in it he ſet a moſt pernicious example to his ſubjects. Even his virtues contributed to this, by ſoftening its deformities: and it may with truth be ſaid, that from that moment, it became the ruling vice of the nation.

Lewis XIII. his ſon and ſucceſſor, being only nine years old, the regency was conferred on his mother Mary Medicis, who very ſoon diſmiſſed the virtuous Sully: and the nobility in a ſhort time became diſguſted with the extravagance and folly of her government. Her appointing Concini an Italian, to be prime miniſter, offended both them and the people, and ſeveral commotions followed. At length Lewis who had attained his ſixteenth year, was inſtigated by one Albert Luines, who had ingratiated himſelf by training birds for him, to take upon himſelf the government. This he was able to effect by the aid of Vitri captain of the guards, and Concini who had

been created marquis d'Ancre, was put to death. They then cauſed the wife of the unfortunate miniſter, through whoſe influence over the queen he had riſen, to be tried for ſorcery and magic: and being found guilty by the parliament of Paris, ſhe was executed. Mary herſelf was firſt confined, and then exiled to Blois: and Luines was rewarded with the riches amaſſed by Concini, and with the firſt titles and offices in France.

Though the conduct of Mary and her unfortunate miniſter, had been highly diſagreeable, the nobility could ill brook the elevation of Luines. This brought on new conteſts for power, which procured the recall of Mary, and introduced another Italian into the council of ſtate. This was Richlieu biſhop of Lucon, who had now the chief influence over the queen dowager, and who at this time obtained a cardinal's hat: but Luines was ſtill able to hold his place in the young king's affections.

The principality of Bearne, the hereditary dominions of his father Henry, had been allowed to keep the Proteſtant religion, and to remain

diſtinct from France. Lewis now thought proper to iſſue an edict, uniting it to his other territories, at the ſame time eſtabliſhing the Catholic religion there, and ordering the lands that had formerly belonged to the Romiſh clergy to be reſtored. This was conſidered as a declaration of war againſt the Hugonots at large. They therefore flew to arms, and reſolved to form a republic, of which Rochelle was to be the capital. Some conflicts and temporizing treaties followed, but at length the Hugonots, ſaw that Richlieu, who on the death of Luines, in fact directed every thing, was determined to deſtroy them. They therefore courted and obtained aſſiſtance from England. But the duke of Rohan their chief leader, was not able to prevent Rochelle being taken: and they were at length obliged to give up all their ſtrong places, on the terms of being allowed their property, and the free exerciſe of their religion.

Whilſt Richlieu was humbling the Proteſtants of France, he was intriguing in their favor in Germany, as they were neceſſary to his views

againſt the houſe of Auſtria; and he actually ſubſidized the king of Sweden to go to their aid. He himſelf led an army into Italy, where he gained ſome advantages over the Imperialiſts and Spaniards, and he obliged the emperor to give the inveſtiture of Mantua and Montferrat to the duke of Nevers.

Richlieu had roſe to power through the influence of Mary Medicis, but had afterwards acted totally independent of her. Highly irritated at this, ſhe had made many attempts to undermine him with her ſon, which Richlieu not only baffled, but was able to procure her baniſhment. A number of his enemies were at the ſame time condemned and executed, amongſt whom were the Marechals Maurillac and Montmorency.

Towards the cloſe of Lewis XIII's. reign, Richlieu raiſed up a moſt powerful confederacy againſt the houſe of Auſtria. Beſides the Proteſtants of Germany, there were the Seven United Provinces, the Swedes, the duke of Savoy and the French, the latter of whom alone, ſent five powerful armies into the field. But the

war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and all parties were inclined to peace, when it was delayed by the death of both Richlieu and his maſter, which happened in the year 1643.

Lewis XIV. who ſucceeded to the throne, being only four years old, the regency was given to his mother Anne of Auſtria. Under her, cardinal Mazarine, another Italian, who had already ſhewn great talents as a ſtateſman, had the chief direction of affairs. He fully joined in the confederacy to humble the houſe of Auſtria, and under his auſpices, Lewis de Bourbon, duke d'Enguien, the prince of Conde's ſon, then only twenty-one, very ſoon diſplayed ſuch military talents, as prognoſticated the title he afterwards was known by, that of the great Conde. Marſhal Turenne at this period, alſo particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf. At length in the year 1647, the United Provinces made a ſeparate treaty with Spain, by which their independence was acknowledged, and in the year following, a general one was concluded, called the peace of Weſtphalia. As I ſhall give it at large in my account of the

German Empire, I ſhall only obſerve in this place, that it was very favorable to France.

Notwithſtanding this treaty, freſh diſturbances broke out with Spain, and a civil war at home. Many of the nobles who hated Mazarine, headed by the coadjutor archbiſhop of Paris, afterwards Cardinal de Retz, one of the ableſt, but moſt abandoned men of his times, took part againſt the court. The conſequence was, that Mazarine and the queen regent, with whom he was accuſed of having an intrigue, were forced to quit Paris, and the Parliament of that city, voted the cardinal an enemy to the country. Other parliaments of the kingdom, and ſevaral cities followed the example; and the nation was thrown into the utmoſt confuſion. During the ſhort conteſt that followed, Turenne and Conde were oppoſed to each other; the former ſiding with de Retz, and the latter with Mazarine: and matters were then for the preſent accommodated. The party headed by de Retz, was known by the name of the Fronde.

Freſh intrigues, in which a number of liber-

tine women of faſhion, took an active part, and in fact directed every thing, ſoon aroſe. Mazarine then ſeized ſeveral great men, whom he afterwards thought proper to ſet at liberty, at the ſame time ſaving himſelf by flight. Whilſt abſent he gained over Turenne, and re-entering the kingdom with 6000 men, re-eſtabliſhed his authority. Conde, who had alſo changed ſide, was then declared guilty of high treaſon by the fluctuating parliament of Paris; on which he entered into the ſervice of Spain: and very ſoon after entered Paris at the head of a body of Spaniards. The parliament of that city then declared him commander of the French army, and the duke of Orleans lieutenant general of the kingdom.

Turenne had been unable to oppoſe Conde, and Mazarine and the court had ſaved themſelves by flight. In this critical ſituation Lewis attained to manhood, and inſtantly declared himſelf an acting king; at the ſame time publicly diſmiſſing Mazarine. This in a moment produced a revolution in the public mind. Paris received the young monarch with the loudeſt acclamations.

Orleans was baniſhed—De Retz impriſoned—and the parliament ſunk into obſcurity.

Lewis, by a judicious management ſoon found himſelf enabled to recall Mazarine, who was received by the fickle people with the utmoſt ſatiſfaction. Turenne was oppoſed to Conde, who was ſtill at the head of the Spaniards. Both diſtinguiſhed themſelves, but nothing deciſive happened; till Cromwell the protector of England, declared for Lewis, ſoon after which, Spain ſued for peace. Mazarine met Don Lewis de Haro, to ſettle the terms in the Iſle of Pheaſants, in the Pyrenees, the chief articles of which were, that the infanta of Spain was to be given to Lewis in marriage; and that prince was to receive Conde into favor, and Philip was to pardon the Catalans who had revolted, and to renounce all pretenſions to Alſace—and the ſucceſſion of Juliers which had been long in diſpute, was alſo ſettled. This was called the Pyrenean treaty, and was made in 1659.

In the following year Mazarine died. He was a man of very ſuperior talents, and to him and Richlieu, France was indebted for bringing the

nobles into ſubjection to the ſovereign; which was certainly more deſirable to the people, than a multitude of petty tyrants. But both theſe miniſters were devoid of all pretenſions to virtuous motives, and each was ready to ſacrifice at all times, and on every occaſion, whatever ſtood in the way of their ambition. The material difference in their characters in other reſpects, was, that Richlieu was moſt influenced by pride and revenge; and Mazarine by an inordinate love of money.

On the death of Mazarine, Lewis then only twenty two, to the ſurprize of his courtiers, his miſtreſſes, and his people, became his own miniſter. He put Colbert at the head of his finances, and Louvois was to direct military affairs; for which places they were eminently qualified. Pleaſed with their young monarch, who had all the advantages of perſon and manners, the people bore without murmuring the taxes he impoſed. From the great armaments both by ſea and land, it was eaſy to foreſee, that ambition was the ruling paſſion of his mind. He was alſo fond of grandeur and pleaſure; whilſt he at the ſame

time encouraged all the arts: and his court ſoon became the moſt luxurious and elegant of any in the world.

In a proceſſion in England, the Spaniſh ambaſſador took place of Lewis's by force. This had been otherwiſe on ſome former occaſions, and he obliged his father-in-law, Philip IV. to declare ſuch a conteſt ſhould never happen again. One of his ambaſſadors at Rome being inſulted, and a page killed, he demanded ſatisfaction. It was at firſt evaded, but finding him in earneſt, the Pope put two of the ringleaders to death, and ſent a legate to Paris to aſk pardon. He alſo obliged his Holineſs to reſtore ſome places to the dukes of Parma and Modena, thus aſſuming to himſelf a right of protecting the Italian princes.

Whilſt Lewis thus maintained what he deemed his rights, he obtained ſome uſeful additions to his territories. He purchaſed Dunkirk from Charles II. of England; which he made ſo excellent an harbour for ſmall veſſels of war, as to be capable of dreadfully annoying the Britiſh trade: and he procured a grant of the province

of Lorraine, after the death of its then duke Charles IV.

The emperor of Germany being at war with the Turks, Lewis ſent 6000 men to his aid under the command of Coligni, where they and their leader highly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. He likewiſe aſſiſted John duke of Braganza, in eſtabliſhing himſelf on the throne of Portugal. And he alſo ſuccoured the Dutch with a body of forces, to oppoſe the biſhop of Munſter who had taken part with England in a war that then ſubſiſted.

Hitherto Lewis had rather been an ally, than a principal in any foreign war: but the death of Philip IV. of Spain opened a new ſcene. Contrary to treaty, he claimed the Netherlands in right of his queen; which he entered in the year 1667, at the head of 40,000 men, with Turenne as ſecond in command. A number of ill fortified towns immediately fell into his hands; which he ordered Vauban, the greateſt engineer that ever appeared, to ſtrengthen; and who rendered them almoſt impregnable. Spain at this time under the weak government of Philip's widow, was

unable to make any effectual reſiſtance; and Franche Compte, alſo fell into the hands of her enemy.

The Dutch, who were now greatly alarmed at the progreſs of the French, prevailed on England and Sweden to form what was called the triple alliance.—By their interference the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was concluded between France and Spain in the year 1668: on the terms that Lewis ſhould hold the towns he had taken in the Netherlands; and reſtore Franche Compte. After this he aſſiſted the Venetians and the emperor againſt the Turks.

During the intervals of peace Lewis adorned his kingdom with many beautiful edifices; and not only architecture, but the arts and literature flouriſhed. His marine alſo began to wear a formidable aſpect, and he was able to ſend out colonies to America, Africa, and Aſia.

Lewis felt his objects of ambition and reſentment a good deal cripled by the triple alliance, which in fact was watching his motions, and he ſet about ſecretly detaching Charles II. of England. In this he ſucceeded, by privately making

that monarch his penſioner: and to further ſecure him, he threw in his way a beautiful French woman who was created ducheſs of Portſmouth; and who very ſoon gained a complete aſcendancy over him. Lewis alſo got Sweden to withdraw from it, whilſt he at the ſame time prevailed on the biſhop of Munſter and the elector of Cologne, to become his allies. Thus prepared, he ſeized on Lorraine, contrary to all good faith, and declared war with Holland, alledging their inſolence was not to be indured. But when Charles II. under the moſt frivolous pretexts, joined him with his forces, it is difficult to ſay, whether the Dutch or the people of England were moſt aſtoniſhed. The danger of the former was now extreme, for the combined fleets amounted to 100 ſail, and Lewis was at the head of 120,000 men; with the generals Turenne and Conde to command them. Beſides that the Dutch had latterly applied themſelves more to trade than to arms, they were torn by two factions, the one headed by the grand penſioner De Wit, a man of great talents, who ſought to prevent the election of a ſtadtholder, and the other by William prince

of Orange, who had an hereditary claim to that office. William was however, in this emergency appointed commander in chief, and by his exertions, an army of 70,000 men, but chiefly new levies, were got together. De Ruyter was placed at the head of the navy, which amounted to 91 men of war, beſides 44 fireſhips. With this force he ſought for, and came up with the combined fleet, which was then encreaſed to 130 ſail. A deſperate engagement enſued, in which however, the French allowed the Engliſh to take the chief part, and they in the end remained maſters of the ſea.

On ſhore, William was unable to withſtand the force of Lewis and his allies. The French monarch made himſelf maſter of the provinces of Gueldres, Utrecht and Overyſſel, whilſt Frieſland and Groningen were invaded by the biſhop of Munſter: and had not Lewis waſted his time at Utrecht in pleaſure, and a vain parade of his wealth and greatneſs, in all probability he would have made himſelf maſter of all the remaining provinces.

De Wit now became highly unpopular, and the young prince of Orange, then only 23 years old, the deſcendant of that family, to whom they owed their original liberty, was looked up to. They therefore repealed the edict that had aboliſhed the ſtadtholderſhip, and immediately raiſed him to that important office.

Not long after this appointment of William, Cornelius de Wit, the penſioner's brother, was accuſed of an attempt to poiſon him. The accuſer was of infamous character, but his teſtimony was believed, and Cornelius ſentenced to baniſhment. This the penſioner reſolved to ſhare. The populace, however, ſeized both, and tore them to pieces. Thus periſhed two men, who had before rendered very eſſential ſervices to their country.

Amſterdam, and the chief cities which remained to the Dutch, had been ſurrounded by water, by means of the ſluices in their dykes being opened, and therefore Lewis could not immediately attack them. This gave time to William to make all the preparations in his power, and all reaſonable

terms having been rejected by his enemies, he reſolved to ſupport the conteſt to the laſt. Ships were however prepared, ſhould neceſſity call for it, to tranſport the chief inhabitants, and their property, to the Dutch ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.

In the year 1673, three battles took place at ſea, between the Dutch and the combined fleets, without any thing deciſive. But the affairs on ſhore now took a very favorable aſpect, and the Imperialiſts having marched to the aid of William, he recovered all that had been taken from the Dutch; ſoon after which a formal alliance took place between the emperor, Holland, and Spain; and Charles II. of England was compelled by the ſentiments of his parliament and people, to conclude a ſeparate peace. The war now continued with various ſucceſs. On the part of the allies William and Montecuculi were the moſt diſtinguiſhed generals: and the French had Conde and Turenne to command them. In the campaign of 1675, the latter loſt his life; and in the

ſame year, Sweden joined France, whilſt the allies were ſtrengthened by the aid of the Danes.

During all this time, Lewis contrived to bribe Charles II. not to call his parliament, well knowing if he did, that it would have inſiſted on joining the Dutch. Charles, however, ſo far gratified his people, as to offer his niece Mary in marriage to William the ſtadtholder, who had the proper delicacy to ſee and converſe with that princeſs before he accepted the propoſal.

Lewis had conſiderable ſucceſs in the year 1677, and in the following one William thought it prudent to make peace, and his allies very ſoon coincided. This was called the treaty of Nimeguen, by which Lewis was to keep Franche Compte, Cambray, Aire, St. Omers, Valenciennes, Tournay, Ypres, Bauchaine, Caſſel, and Charlemont, with ſome places of leſs note; and the other towns he had taken were to be reſtored. The emperor gave up Fribourg to France, but retained Philipſburgh. The elector of Brandenburgh, who had alſo become an ally of the Dutch, in the courſe of the war, gave up to Sweden his

conqueſts in Pomerania, and the treaty of Weſtphalia was confirmed as to Germany and the North; but the duke of Lorraine not chooſing to come in to the terms offered, loſt his dominions. This peace was in fact dictated by Lewis, who was now at the ſummit of his glory.

During the war that preceded the peace of Nimeguen, the inhabitants of Meſſina, in Sicily, having revolted from Spain, invited the French. In conſequence of this Duqueſne, one of the ableſt admirals of France was ſent with a powerful fleet to their aid. Oppoſed to him were the Dutch and Spaniſh fleets united under the command of de Ruyter, who was alſo a celebrated naval officer. Three conſiderable engagements followed, in the ſecond of which de Ruyter loſt his life; but though the French were victorious in the laſt, it had no important conſequences.

Lewis had no intentions of continuing in peace: and by ſeizing ſome places in the poſſeſſion of Spain, and others that were part of the German empire, under the pretence that they

were appendages to what had been ceded, he ſoon provoked freſh hoſtilities. He however ſtopped the career of his armies for a ſhort time, on hearing that Vienna was beſieged by the Turks, declaring he would not attack a Chriſtian prince, whilſt Chriſtendom was in danger. But as ſoon as that city was relieved, he continued to add to his territories, and the emperor and Spain were glad to prevent his proceeding further, by agreeing to a moſt humiliating truce for twenty years.

Beſides a prodigious army, Lewis was now equally formidable on the ocean. He poſſeſſed 100 ſail of the line, manned with 60,000 ſeamen: and Toulon, Breſt, and other harbours, were in a complete ſtate of repair. He made one good uſe of this force, for he obliged Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, to releaſe all Chriſtian ſlaves. Another proof of his power was, his deſtroying a great part of the city of Genoa, it having dared to build ſome ſhips for the Spaniards, contrary to his orders: and he compelled its

Doge, with four of its chief ſenators, to come to Verſailles, to implore his pardon.

The death of Colbert, in the year 1685, gave the firſt blow to the proſperity of Lewis. That great miniſter had wiſely encouraged the Proteſtants in all their manufactures, many of which they almoſt excluſively poſſeſſed. Their induſtry and conſequent wealth, had long been beheld by their enemies with a jealous eye; and having loſt their patron, Lewis was eaſily prevailed on to revoke the edict of Nantz. After this unjuſt, inhuman, and impolitic act, many of them periſhed, by the perſecutions that followed; and 600,000 of his beſt and moſt valuable ſubjects abandoned the kingdom.

Whilſt Lewis was thus gratifying the Pope, by perſecuting heretics, he quarrelled with his Holineſs about the privilege of an ambaſſador at Rome. Theſe delegates of royalty had hitherto been allowed to make their places of reſidence aſylums for every offender: the Pope wiſely aboliſhing this cuſtom, all the diplomatic body ſubmitted, except Lewis's repreſentative: but

his maſter was too powerful to be controuled.

Lewis had now become the terror of Europe, and in the year 1687, a very formidable combination took place againſt him. The foundation of it was the league of Augſburgh, conſiſting of all the members of the German empire. Spain and Holland immediately joined, as did ſoon after Denmark, Sweden, and Savoy, and laſt of all England, where William III. had obtained the throne. The only ally of France was the grand ſeignior, whoſe only aſſiſtance was at ſea.

Lewis, whoſe army conſiſted of 450,000 men, bid defiance to them all. The generals under him were the dauphin, and the marſhals Luxemburgh, Catinat, and de Boufflers: whilſt the allies oppoſed to them the duke of Lorraine, Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, prince Eugene, and king William. This conteſt was continued with various ſucceſs to 1697, when it was ended by the peace of Ryſwick. I have not mentioned the battles fought, the towns taken, the countries ravaged, and all the horrors incident to ſo extend-

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ed a war. Suffice it to ſay, that William and Lewis, with the generals I have mentioned, diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the field, and that towards the cloſe of it, the armies of France had ſuffered ſeverely.

At ſea, the French were at firſt rather ſuperior; and in one engagement where Tourville commanded their fleet, the allies had 17 ſhips burned or ſtranded, whilſt their opponents did not loſe a ſingle veſſel. But latterly, the balance of power on the ocean was againſt the navy of Lewis.

By the peace of Ryſwick, the French monarch was to acknowledge William's right to the crown of England, though not in direct terms. The duchy of Luxemburgh, the county of Chineri, Charlerois, Mons, Aeth, Coutrai, and all places united to France, contrary to the true ſpirit of the treaty of Nimeguen were to be reſtored. Fribourg, Briſgaw, and Philipſburgh, were delivered back to the emperor; and the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, were given up to Leopold, their native prince, who was the ſon of that duke who loſt them, and who had afterwards died in the ſervice of the emperor.

From this period to the death of Charles II. of Spain, Lewis was chiefly engaged in intrigues, as to the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, and you have ſeen the duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon of the dauphin, raiſed to that throne. This united the intereſts of theſe hitherto rival crowns; and though England murmurred, the emperor alone commenced hoſtilities. But in 1701, the grand alliance was formed between that monarch, England, and the Dutch. The object of this was to obtain compenſation to the emperor, for his loſs of the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, to ſecure England and Holland their territories and commerce, and to prevent the French and Spaniſh dominions ever being united under one head. It was at this time that the elector of Brandenburgh obtained from the emperor the title of king of Pruſſia, and in return he promiſed his aſſiſtance as a member of the empire. The ſucceſſion of queen Ann to the throne of England made no change in this arrangement, and war was declared againſt Lewis by all the allies, in the beginning of 1702.

The king of Spain being a minor, his grandfather Lewis, was the director of both kingdoms. At firſt he had alſo the aid of Peter VI. of Portugal, and the duke of Savoy. But they changed ſides in the year 1703; and on the other hand the elector of Bavaria joined France. The conflict was dreadful, and a number of battles took place. Thoſe of the greateſt conſequence by land were fought at Blenheim, Ramilies, Oudenarde, Malplaquet, and Almanza; in all of which, except the latter, the allies were victorious, and the duke of Marlborough, who commanded them in the four firſt, gained the higheſt military reputation. In Italy, prince Eugene, on the ſame ſide, diſtinguiſhed himſelf, as did the earl of Peterborough in Spain, who was alſo peculiarly admired for his generoſity and humanity. On Lewis's part, the generals moſt celebrated were, the duke of Berwic, who commanded at Almanza, the duke of Vendome, and the marſhals Villeroy, Tallard, Villars, and Boufflers. Of all the countries where hoſtilities were carried on, Spain, ſuffered the moſt; for beſides being a ſeat

of the general war, the Spaniards themſelves were engaged in a civil one; ſome of them acknowledging Philip V. whilſt others repaired to the ſtandard of the archduke Charles, the emperor's brother, and who had alſo taken the title of king. At ſea, the taking of Cadiz, the ſurprizing Gibraltar, and the conqueſts of Sardinia and Minorca, were the moſt memorable enterpriſes, all of which were accompliſhed by the allies. Beſides his foreign enemies, Lewis had an internal religious inſurrection to quell. Theſe were a body of fanatics, known by the name of Camiſards.

From the year 1706 to 1712, Lewis's affairs underwent ſo calamitous a change, that he was always ready for a reaſonable peace; and at length even for a humiliating one. But the councils of prince Eugene, the duke of Marlborough, and Heinſius the grand penſionary of Holland, a triumvirate that in fact directed the conduct of the allies, were always for war. Lewis thus forced to continue it, uſed the greateſt exertions; and his people, though

harraſſed and diſtreſſed beyond meaſure, ſeeing all juſt overtures rejected, ſhewed the moſt uncommon zeal in ſupport of their monarch. Abont this period, the fleet of France was reduced almoſt to the ſtate in which Lewis had found it. This was chiefly occaſioned by its loſſes in the Mediterranean, and by a vain attempt to retake Gibraltar.

Some changes had taken place in the councils of the empire, and thoſe of England were totally altered. The latter was now for peace, provided the union of the two crowns of France and Spain was guarded againſt. A private agreement of that nature was therefore made with Lewis, and the duke of Ormond, who had ſucceeded Marlborough, was ordered not to act offenſively. This at firſt ſurpriſed and diſpleaſed the reſt of the allies, but at length the treaties of Utrecht and Raſtadt, which I have given you elſewhere, put an end to a war that had been attended with a prodigious effuſion of human blood.

On the death of queen Ann, Lewis undoubtedly wiſhed to ſerve James III. in his pretenſions to England, but he at leaſt apparently refuſed

all the ſolicitations of the duke of Berwick, James's natural brother, and to whom he owed ſome obligations. He died in the year 1715, and the crown thereupon devolved to his great grandſon Lewis XV.

I will here take a retroſpective view of France, from the acceſſion of Henry II. to that of Lewis XIV. During the reign of the firſt of theſe princes, the poetry of the French conſiſted of a few epigrams and looſe tales; and any thing like good proſe-writing was almoſt unknown. Commerce, architecture, ſcience, and the fine arts, were ſcarcely heard of; and in ſhort, the people were ſlaves, the nobles tyrants, and ignorance and poverty every where abounded.

This deſcription is equally applicable to the ſubſequent reigns prior to that of Francis I. He gave as much encouragement as in his power to learning, commerce, and the arts; but his perpetual wars and misfortunes rendered thoſe attempts abortive: and from thence till the reign of Henry IV. France preſented one hideous ſcene of religious perſecutions and bloody civil wars. The latter did a good deal, but his unexpected

cataſtrophe blaſted the proſpects he had opened, and during the reign of Lewis XIII. very little was done towards the improvement of France. At the death of that prince, there was ſcarcely a building in the kingdom that had any claim to architecture. Arts, ſciences, and commerce were ſtill in embryo, and as to any naval power, there was not even a ſingle ſhip of the line. Poetry and proſe compoſitions had, however, conſiderably improved, as I ſhall elſewhere have occaſion to mention.

Lewis XIV. during his long reign, had the happineſs of totally changing the face of his kingdom. He encouraged every kind of uſeful knowledge. Poetic and proſe compoſitions abounded, and in each there were moſt captivating authors. Architecture, ſtatuary, painting and muſic, were alſo brought to a very high degree of perfection. For a time, his naval power, which was ſolely created by himſelf, diſputed the ocean, and then France had her ſhare in commerce; but towards the cloſe of his reign, that was annihilated, and of courſe all foreign trade had declined.

One of the means taken by Lewis for the encouragement of knowledge, was the inſtituting

what is called the French academy at Paris in 1669. At its head he placed Dominico Caſſini, an Italian, and Huygens, a Dutchman, both eminent for learning and knowledge, particularly in the great ſubjects of mathematics and aſtronomy. Chemiſtry, botany, geography, natural philoſophy, and every other branch of uſeful knowledge, were alſo attended to. The Belles Lettres had likewiſe been highly encouraged. So were inventions of all kinds that were uſeful or ornamental. Lewis, amongſt other things, had added 30,000 volumes to the royal library. In ſhort, under this great prince, France, from being deficient in every thing, became the moſt poliſhed nation in the world; and except England, the moſt enlightened. Her court was the firſt in elegance and magnificence, and a number of beautiful edifices adorned Paris and other parts of the kingdom. But at the ſame time, a licentiouſneſs of manners, and a bigoted ſuperſtition prevailed; the fatal effects of which you will ſee in the next æra.

Having thus, I hope, fairly ſaid what is due to Lewis's love of knowledge and the fine arts, I

muſt point out the defects of his adminiſtration. Puſhed on by an unbounded ambition, he deſolated Europe, and loaded his own people with a grievous taxation. To his Proteſtant ſubjects he acted with injuſtice and bigotry; and in his private life he ſet examples of vicious gallantry, which pervaded firſt the court, then the capital, and at length the country. In ſhort, Lewis was a brave, an able, a poliſhed, and a magnificent monarch; but his ambition and vices oblige me to withhold an addition more deſirable than all, that of being a virtuous prince.

ELEVENTH LETTER.

BEFORE I proceed to the empire of Germany at large, I ſhall briefly touch on the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, till they finally veſted in the houſe of Auſtria. Ladiſlaus Albert, king of Hungary was depoſed in 1464, for various acts of tyranny. One of theſe was, his having unjuſtly put to death a ſon of the celebrated John Hunniades; and another ſon of his, named Mathias, was now raiſed to the vacant throne. The next king of Hungary was Ladiſlaus king of Bohemia, who was ſucceeded in 1471, in both crowns, by Ladiſlaus the ſon of Caſſimir king of Poland. On the death of Lewis, the ſon and ſucceſſor of the latter, Hungary and Bohemia came to Ferdinand, the brother of Charles V.

The emperor Frederick III. who was at the head of the German empire at the commencement of this æra, died in 1493; and after va-

rious intrigues, the new election fell on his ſon Maximilian. This emperor married the only daughter of Charles the Raſh duke of Burgundy, and in her right he claimed on the death of her father, Flanders, Franche Compte, the Netherlands, Burgundy, Picardy, Ponthieu, and Artois. But Lewis XI. of France inſiſted the four latter denominations devolved to him, as fiefs to his crown; and a conteſt enſued in which eventually Maximilian proved ſucceſsful. This emperor's forces were not ſo fortunate againſt the Swiſs, who now eſtabliſhed their independence. He likewiſe failed in a deſign of uniting the papacy with the imperial crown, in his own perſon.

During the reign of Maximilian, Germany was divided into the following circles. Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia, Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia, Auſtria, Bavaria, and Swabia; and each of theſe had a director to watch over its peace. An imperial chamber was alſo eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of 50 judges, whoſe province it was to decide on all

diſputes that ſhould ariſe between the members of the empire. Of theſe judges, the emperor named five, one of whom was preſident: each elector appointed one, and the reſt were ſent by the other princes and ſtates. The Aulic Council was alſo better regulated by Maximilian. It conſiſted of a preſident, vice-preſident, vice-chancellor, and a certain number of members, and its duty was to ſuperintend the feudal rights, and what moſt immediately concerned the emperor. But this reign was ſtill more memorable for the commencement of the reformation in matters of religion.

Pope Leo X. having expended vaſt ſums on his pleaſures, and in the improvement of Rome, conceived a plan of relieving his wants, which were become preſſing. Granting pardons to ſinners for certain ſums of money, had long been a branch of papal revenue; and the ſale of them had been generally committed to the Auguſtine friars. Theſe pardons had, however, only been given for paſt offences; whereas Leo now had them worded ſo as to extend to all that

the purchaſers ſhould commit during their lives; and of courſe the price was much higher. The diſpoſing of them was now committed to the Dominicans. This highly offended the Auguſtines, and Martin Luther who was one of them, began to queſtion the Pope's power to make ſuch an alteration. This alſo led him to think whether he could pardon at all, and ſo on to enquire into all the Papal claims; till at length he openly avowed the whole fabric to be Antichriſtian; and being ſummoned to Rome to anſwer for his conduct, he thought proper to diſobey, and for the preſent to go into concealment.

In 1519 Maximilian was ſucceeded in the empire by his grandſon Charles V. whoſe hiſtory, as to every thing but Germany, has been before related. Ferdinand the king of Bohemia and Hungary, brother of Charles, took every pains in his power to put down Luther. On the other hand that reformer gained a multitude of followers. The art of printing being lately diſcovered, he had the ſcriptures tranſlated and publiſhed in the German language, and he

preached againſt clerical abuſes with zeal and firmneſs. From his exertions the elector of Saxony, the kings of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and the great body of their ſubjects became converts to the doctrine of the reformation. So were the greater part of the inhabitants of lower Germany, Livonia, and Pruſſia. Albert of Brandenburgh, grand maſter of the Teutonic order likewiſe eſpouſed his cauſe; and thus ſupported, Luther bade defiance to Charles, Ferdinand, and the papacy. To ſtem this, the emperor held a diet at Spire in 1529. This aſſembly confirmed reſolutions againſt Luther and his adherents, that had before been agreed to at Worms. But the deputies of 14 cities, the elector of Saxony, the landgrave of Heſſe, the duke of Lunenburgh, and the prince Anhalt, proteſted againſt its proceedings: and from this period thoſe who diſclaimed the Papal power were called Proteſtants.

In a diet held at Augſburgh in 1530, Charles attempted to get his brother Ferdinand made king of the Romans. In this he was defeated, chiefly

by the exertions of the Proteſtants who ſat in it. They then preſented their confeſſion of Faith to the aſſembly, which had been drawn up by Melancthon, a learned, pious, and modeſt divine. But Charles was able to obtain a decree from the diet, very inimical to the new religion, and the leaders of it were obliged to form a league of defence, headed by the aged elector of Saxony. This was called the league of Smalcald, which was ſecretly ſuported by the courts of England and France. Charles had alſo to contend with the Turks who were extremely powerful. Thus circumſtanced, he found it prudent to make peace with the Proteſtants, and a treaty was concluded at Nuremburgh in 1532; by which they were to aſſiſt him againſt the Infidels, and in return they were not to be diſturbed in the exerciſe of their religion, till the deciſion of a general council ſhould be obtained.

Solyman, the Turkiſh emperor, now entered Hungary at the head of 300,000 men. To oppoſe him, Charles had only 90,000 foot and 30,000 horſe, who were regularly diſciplined;

but he had alſo a conſiderable number of new raiſed troops, and he was able to defeat the hoſtile deſigns of the enemy. The affairs of Spain and Italy then demanded his attention: and the reformers continued to gain ground for ſome years without moleſtation.

In the beginning of the 16th century a very extraordinary ſect, called Anabaptiſts, had appeared in Germany. They equally declared againſt Catholics and Lutherans, and preaching a general equality amongſt men, they ſoon became extremely numerous. Their principal leader was one Muncer, who pretended to be a prophet, and for a time this wretch was ſuffered to commit the moſt dreadful exceſſes and cruelties. But they were ſoon ſuppreſſed, and Muncer being taken, had been put to a well merited death in 1525.

The ſame ſort of enthuſiaſm not long after broke out in Weſtphalia, with a much more formidable aſpect. They ſeized on the city of Munſter, expelling its biſhop, and at the ſame time taking for their leader one John Mathias,

a journeyman baker, but who, like Muncer, claimed to be divinely inſpired. Mathias being afterwards killed in an engagement, was ſucceeded by a journeyman taylor, called John Bocole. He alledged that God had appeared to him, and ordered him to aſſume the regal dignity. The ſuperſtitious multitude taking his word for it, crowned him with great ſolemnity; after which he appointed twelve apoſtles to preach his divine miſſion in lower Germany.

Amongſt other tenets, John declared, that every man might have as many wives as he thought proper. In conformity to this, he ſupplied himſelf with fourteen, and one of theſe daring to doubt his miſſion, he cut off her head in the preſence of the reſt, who afterwards joined him in dancing round the dead body. At length, in the year 1535, the biſhop beſieged him in the city of Munſter, and after gallantly defending it for a year, it was taken more by treachery from within, than from the uſual proceſs of war. On this occaſion moſt of John's companions fell in battle, and he was put to a death of torture,

which he bore with the utmoſt fortitude. The ſame ſpirit however for ſome time after ſhewed itſelf in other places, but with no conſequences worthy of notice; and thoſe who have ſince taken the name of Anabaptiſts have been rather remarkable for their quiet and peaceable demeanour.

In 1541 Charles held a diet at Ratiſbon, to conſider the Proteſtant doctrines. This highly offended the Pope, as it was committing the deciſion of a religious queſtion to a body chiefly compoſed of laymen. The proceedings of this aſſembly was alſo diſagreeable to the Proteſtants; but Charles who was in dread of both France and the Turks made conceſſions, that pacified them for the preſent.

Charles was now obliged to make very humiliating terms with the Turks, by which they were to hold a part of Hungary which they had conquered, and his brother Ferdinand was to pay tribute for the remainder. He then entered into an alliance with Pope Paul III. and ſeriouſly ſet about the deſtruction of the reformiſts.

The Pope at the ſame time called the council of Trent to conſider their claims, but not liking its complexion, the Proteſtants refuſed to attend it.

Both ſides at length prepared to ſettle the queſtion by arms. Charles however, alſo negotiated, and prevailed on ſome of the reformiſts to quit the league. He then took the field againſt the remainder, commanded by the elector of Saxony, whom he defeated at Mulhauſen: and ſoon after got into his power by the treachery of Maurice, marquis of Miſnia and Thuringia, who was both the relation and ſon-in-law of the elector. Charles alſo made the landgrave of Heſſe his priſoner, who was likewiſe betrayed to him; and he every where plundercd and oppreſſed thoſe who were members of the Smalcald league. In Bohemia, his brother Ferdinand much about the ſame time ſuppreſſed an inſurrection, chiefly occaſioned by a religious difference alſo: and he then ſtripped the Bohemians of many of their ancient privileges, and loaded them with taxes they were ill able to bear.

Charles, though he wiſhed to put down the Proteſtant league, was at the ſame time highly deſirous to come to a compromiſe as to what ſhould in future be the eſtabliſhed faith. The Pope on the other hand, was determined to adhere to the old tenets. His Holineſs therefore removed the general council from Trent, to Bologna, that it might be under his own eye. This Charles highly reſented, and declaring all acts done there void, he again called a diet at Augſburgh to conſider of what articles of faith ſhould be eſtabliſhed.

Charles had prepared a ſyſtem agreeing in moſt things with the popiſh rules, but at the ſame time introducing ſome proviſions, that he thought would be agreeable to the Proteſtants. The diet complied with his wiſhes; but almoſt every one, whether Catholic or Proteſtant, exclaimed againſt this motley production. The emperor had however influence enough with a few of the Proteſtant leaders to obtain their ſanction; though neither threats or promiſes could make the elector of Saxony, who was ſtill a priſoner, accede to it: and on the other

hand the ſacred college at Rome moſt loudly exclaimed againſt Charles's preſumption.

Julius III. at this time ſucceeded to the papal chair, and being more accommodating than his predeceſſor, he allowed the general council to go back again to Trent: whilſt Charles called a new diet at Augſburgh, for the purpoſe of acknowledging that council, and of enforcing the Interim; the appellation which was now given to his articles.

Maurice, the betrayer of his virtuous father-in-law, for which he had been rewarded with the poſſeſſion of his dominions, had no real reliance on the emperor; though he was at the head of an army apparently to enforce the Interim. He therefore ſecretly meditated joining the Proteſtants, in which he was encouraged by the court of France: and having previouſly made all neceſſary preparations, he threw off the maſk. He at the ſame time declared his objects to be, the liberty of the landgrave of Heſſe, the ſecurity of the Proteſtant religion, and the preſervation of the Germanic conſtitution. It is here neceſſary to obſerve, that the landgrave had put

himſelf in the power of Charles, in conſequence of a written obligation from Maurice and the elector of Brandenburg, that they would guarantee his liberty. This had been in vain ſolicited by the landgrave, who then demanded theſe guarantees to ſurrender themſelves to his ſon, agreeable to their obligation. They therefore had applied to Charles, who inſtead of complying, publiſhed an edict, declaring, as head of the Holy Roman empire, that ſuch an engagement was void.

This declaration of war in 1552, was immediately backed by a proclamation of the French king, that he would protect the liberty of Germany, and its captive princes. The aſtoniſhed Charles, who had no ſuſpicion of this deep laid deſign was obliged to fly, and on the 17th day of July in the ſame year he agreed to the following terms, at a place called Paſſau. The confederates to lay down their arms on the 12th of Auguſt following—the landgrave to be ſet at liberty—all perſecution to ceaſe, and a diet to be held in 6 months to ſettle all religious diſſenſions —the imperial chamber to adminiſter juſtice

impartially to both parties, and both ſects to be admitted indiſcriminately to ſit as judges—any encroachments alledged to have been made on the liberties and conſtitution of Germany to be taken into conſideration—and if the diet ſhould not be able to terminate the diſputes between the two parties, the ſtipulations of that treaty in favor of the Proteſtants, to continue for ever.

The French king you will obſerve was not even mentioned in this arrangement; and Charles afterwards with the aid of the elector, Albert of Brandenburgh, attempted to regain Metz, Toul and Verdun from the French. This led alſo to a war, in which Albert and Maurice were oppoſed to each other: and the latter died of a wound he received in the battle of Sieverhauſen, in which he had been victorious. Maurice having left no male iſſue, Saxony was given to his brother Auguſtus: ſoon after which the unfortunate but virtuous old elector died in priſon.

Albert rallied for a time on the death of Maurice, but the latter's place being ſupplied by Henry of Brunſwick, he was no longer able to keep the field. In Hungary and Tranſylvania

various wars of no conſequence to general hiſtory had taken place; in ſome of which the Turks were engaged. Martimuzzi, the governor of Tranſylvania, in theſe tranſactions obtained peculiar honor; which induced Ferdinand, his infamous monarch, to have him put to death, being fearful of the conſequences of his popularity.

In the year 1555 a diet was again held at Augſburgh, where it was decided—that all the princes and cities that had declared in favor of the Proteſtant religion, ſhould have full liberty to profeſs and exerciſe it—that the ſupreme power in every ſtate ſhould eſtabliſh whatever form of worſhip was thought proper—that thoſe who had got church benefices, or revenues, prior to the treaty of Paſſau, ſhould hold them—but that any other prelate who had ceaſed, or ſhould in future ceaſe to acknowledge the ſee of Rome, ſhould loſe his preferment, and it was to be diſpoſed of as if he was dead. This arrangement was very ſatisfactory to both the Catholics and Proteſtants of Germany, but not ſo to Pope

Paul IV. He threatened both Charles and his brother Ferdinand, and actually entered into an alliance with their avowed enemy Henry II. of France. It was not long after this that Charles reſigned all his hereditary dominions to his ſon Philip, and the imperial dignity to his brother Ferdinand I. who had been before elected king of the Romans.

Charles V. was undoubtedly a man of great talents, and highly diſtinguiſhed as an able ſtateſman and a gallant ſoldier. He was alſo capable of high acts of generoſity, as in the caſe of releaſing and ſending home the Chriſtian ſlaves: and his reſigning the imperial power, and his hereditary crown, in the manner he did, muſt have ariſen from an uncommon elevation of mind. But on the other hand his ambition had known no bounds. To gratify it he enſlaved the Spaniards, and involved all Europe in perpetual wars: and in the purſuit of his purpoſes he ſcrupled not to act with hypocriſy, cruelty and perfidy. Upon the whole, the virtues and vices of this celebrated monarch ſeems to have been

nearly ballanced; but he was certainly a ſcourge, and not a benefactor to mankind.

In 1564, on the death of Ferdinand, his ſon Maximilian II. became emperor. A war of ſhort duration, and no conſequence took place with the Turks, who had ſupported John Sigiſmund prince of Tranſylvania in his claim to the crown of Hungary: and from the year 1566, to the death of Rodolph II. the ſon and ſucceſſor of Maximilian, Germany enjoyed almoſt a profound tranquility. Rodolph was of ſo pacific a nature, that he ſuffered his brother Mathias to prevail on the inhabitants of Bohemia, Hungary, and Auſtria to revolt without even attempting to regain them by arms: after which Mathias ſecured their affections, by giving them perfect liberty of conſcience, and ſuch privileges as they demanded. Rodolph's chief delight was aſtronomy and aſtrology: and happy it was for Germany, and the dominions uſurped by his brother, that he preferred thoſe ſtudies to the love of power, and glory.

Towards the close of Rodolph's reign, who died in 1612, two parties were forming. The one consisted of the chief Protestants, who called themselves the Evangelical League; and the other was known by the name of the Catholic. The death of William duke of Cleves, Juliers and Bergue, without male issue, also raised up several competitors for the succession to his territories: and such was the state of things when Mathias succeeded his brother Rodolph in the empire.

Mathias had hitherto appeared the friend of the Protestants, but having made some necessary arrangements after his elevation, he soon assumed a different character. This produced revolts and civil wars, which he did not long survive, and leaving no issue he was succeeded in his hereditary dominions, and in the empire, by his next heir Ferdinand de Gratz.

The Bohemians, who were before in revolt, and highly discontented, did not however readily submit to Ferdinand. On the contrary they called on Frederic V. elector palatine, and who was also son-in-law to James I. of England, to accept

their crown. All the Proteſtant princes, the elector of Saxony excepted, who was looking for the ſucceſſion to the duchy of Cleves and Juliers, took part with the elector. He was alſo aſſiſted by ſome Engliſh volunteers, though his father-in-law diſapproved of the attempt; and he likewiſe got 8000 men from Holland, under prince Henry of Naſſau. But Ferdinand with the aid of the Catholics of Germany, Spain, and the Netherlands, was more than a match for him, and inſtead of gaining Bohemia, he loſt his palatinate, his electorate dignity being at the ſame time transferred to the duke of Bavaria: and Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in conjunction with the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, in vain attempted to reſtore him.

Ferdinand, who was now at the head of 150,000 men, with Tilly and Walſtein, two of the ableſt generals in Europe to command them, demanded terms of the Proteſtants, that they deemed inadmiſſable. They therefore ſought and obtained the aid of Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, a zealous reformiſt. They were alſo privately

aſſiſted with men and money from England and France, and many of the Popiſh princes of the empire, fearful of the ambitious deſigns of the Emperor were glad to remain neutral.

Guſtavus and his allies, the chief of whom were the electors of Brandenburgh and Saxony, and the landgrave of Heſſe, defeated the Imperialiſts commanded by Tilly at a place called Breintenfeld. This brought all the Proteſtants to declare themſelves, and Guſtavus followed up his victory without any of thoſe exceſſes that are diſgraceful to humanity. In another engagement Tilly loſt his life, and not long after Guſtavus himſelf fell at Lutzen, after defeating Waiſtein.

The fall of Guſtavus was a ſignal of diſmay to the Proteſtants, and the unfortunate Frederick, the former elector palatine, is ſuppoſed to have died of vexation. Oxienſtern, the regent and chancellor of Sweden, was now entruſted with the management of the war, and under his direction the chief perſons employed were the duke of Saxweimir and the generals Bannier and Horn: and much about this time the emperor had his

general Walſtein aſſaſſinated, from a miſunderſtanding that had induced the latter to meditate a revolt.

The command of the Imperial forces was now given to the king of Hungary, eldeſt ſon to the emperor. He was joined by 20,000 Spaniards and Italians under the duke of Feria. The cardinal infant governor of the Low Countries, alſo ſent ſome forces. The duke of Lorraine brought him 10,000 men, and the duke of Bavaria likewiſe gave his aſſiſtance. The Swedes and their confederates, now received a dreadful defeat at Nordlingien, and the emperor thereupon wiſely offered terms that were acceded to by all but the landgrave of Heſſe. By this treaty concluded at Prague in 1635, the Proteſtants were to retain for ever, the mediate eccleſiaſtical benefices that did not depend immediately on the emperor, and which had been ſeized on by them before the pacification of Paſſau; the exerciſe of their religion to be freely permitted in all the ſtates of the empire, except Bohemia, and the provinces belonging to the houſe of Auſtria.—The duke of Bava-

ria to keep the palatinate, but to pay the jointure ſettled on Frederick's widow, and a certain maintenance to Frederick's ſon, provided he returned to his duty; and there was to be a mutual reſtitution of every place taken, from the time Guſtavus of Sweden interfered. Not long after this the emperor died and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III.

The treaty of Prague was ſoon broken, and a ſcene of war enſued that involved all the former contending parties, though ſome had changed ſides. In the general view I am giving you it is only neceſſary to ſay, that the empire was deluged with blood until the peace of Weſtphalia, which was ſigned on the 24th of October, 1648.

By this peace the ſovereignty of the archbiſhopricks of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, the city of Pignerol, Briſac and its dependencies, the territory of Simgaw, the landgraviates of Upper and Lower Alſace, and the right to keep a garriſon in the fortreſs of Philipſburgh, were ceded to France. To the Swedes five millions of crowns were to be paid: the archbiſhopric of Bremen, and the biſhopric of Verden to be ſecularized,

and together with Upper Pomerania, Stetin, the iſle of Rugen, and city of Wiſmar, in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, were ceded to Sweden, to be held as fiefs of the empire, with three voices at the diet. The elector of Brandenburgh in lieu of Upper Pomerania, got the biſhoprics of Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden and Camin, as ſecular principalities, with four votes at the diet. The duke of Mecklenburgh in lieu of Wiſmar got the biſhoprics of Schwerin and Ratzburgh, to be erected alſo into ſecular principalities. The electoral dignity, with the Upper palatinate was to remain with Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, and his iſſue male. The Lower Palatinate to be reſtored to Charles Lewis, the ſon of the depoſed elector, and it was to be made an VIIIth. electorate, to continue to the extinction of the iſſue male of the duke of Bavaria. All the other ſtates of the empire to have the ſame rights they enjoyed before the year 1619. The republic of Switzerland was declared a ſovereign ſtate independent of the empire; and the reſtitution of the diſputed ſucceſſion of Cleves and Juliers,

as alſo the reſtitution of Lorraine was left to arbitration.

As to religion, the pacification of Paſſau was confirmed: the Calviniſts were to enjoy the ſame privileges as the Lutherans: the Imperial chamber to conſiſt of twenty-four Proteſtants and twenty-ſix Catholics: the emperor was to receive ſix Proteſtants into the aulic council: an equal number of Catholics and Proteſtants to be choſen for the diet, when not called as to religion; but when called on that ſubject, all to be of that religion in which a point was to be agitated.

Ferdinand III. ſurvived the peace of Weſtphalia about nine years, and after a ſhort interregnum was ſucceeded by his ſon Leopold, who concluded an alliance offenſive and defenſive with Denmark. His general Montecuculi obliged the Turks who had attacked the empire under the command of the grand vizier Kupruli, to make peace. Ferdinand was alſo able to ſuppreſs a revolt of the Hungarian nobles whoſe privileges he had invaded: and he was engaged

in a war with Lewis XIV. which ended with the peace of Nimeguen as before related.

In 1683 a freſh rebellion took place in Hungary, under Tekeli, and it became ſomewhat formidable from the ſupport of the Turks; Vienna itſelf being beſieged. But John Sobieſki king of Poland bringing a powerful army to the aid of the duke of Lorraine, the Turks received a ſignal overthrow. All their artillery and equipage were taken; and the great ſtandard of Mahomet ſent to the Pope. The conſequence of this, was, that the emperor recovered all he had loſt in Hungary.

Leopold now got the crown of Hungary, declared hereditary in the houſe of Auſtria, and his ſon Joſeph was proclaimed king. Though he had formed a truce with France for 20 years in 1684, yet he thought it adviſeable to guard againſt the ambition of Lewis, and in the year 1687 he got the different members of the empire to enter into a confederacy at Augſburgh for the purpoſe of giving efficacy to the treaties of Weſtphalia, the Pyrenees and Nimeguen.

And to this, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Savoy and England, as you have ſeen, afterwards acceded.

In the war that followed, Lewis laid waſte the Palatinate with fire and ſword; and the Turks entering Hungary much about the ſame time, took a great part of it. Hoſtilities ended with France in 1697; and prince Eugene then got the command againſt the Turks, who were headed by the grand ſeignior in perſon. Eugene proved completely victorious, at a place called Zenta; which brought about the treaty of Carlowitz. By it the emperor and his allies Ruſſia, Poland, and Venice, obtained the following terms. All Hungary on the German ſide of the Saave, together with Tranſylvania and Sclavonia were ceded to the houſe of Auſtria.—The Ruſſians were to retain Azoph.—Carminiec was reſtored to the Poles.—And the Venetians got Peloponneſus in Greece, now called the Morea, together with certain diſtricts in Dalmatia.

I have elſewhere treated of the war between the emperor and Lewis XIV. occaſioned by the will of Charles II. of Spain: but I ſhall in this

place, add, that in Germany hoſtilities were carried on with various ſucceſs during the remainder of the reign of Leopold, and that of his ſucceſſor Joſeph; till at length the treaties of Utrecht and Raſtadt ſettled their differences, and there is nothing elſe worth mentioning during the remainder of this æra.

There were in Germany about 300 princes lay and eccleſiaſtical, each of whom poſſeſſed abſolute authority within his own dominions. Beſides theſe there were about 60 free imperial towns and cities, governed by their own laws and regulations, as to every thing interior. But all theſe princes and cities were confederated together, and beſides the diviſions into circles, and the imperial and aulic courts, they had diets which aſſembled on all extraordinary occaſions. Theſe aſſemblies were thus conſtituted. The emperor, or in his abſence his commiſſary preſided, attended by the three colleges of the empire. Theſe were the electors—the princes—and the repreſentatives of the imperial towns and cities: and whatever was decreed by them, the

emperor was to carry into execution. When the diet reſolved on war, then they fixed the number of troops and money, each component part of the empire was to furniſh, agreeable to a table kept by the elector of Mentz for that purpoſe.

There were nine electors at the cloſe of this æra, the prince of the Palatinate, who acted as great ſtewart, and the prince of Hanover who was arch-treaſurer, having been added to the ſeven, I have before mentioned. I ſhall here obſerve that the emperor as ſuch gets no territory, except the city of Bamberg; where he is to reſide, if he has not a city he likes better: Vienna which has been long conſidered the capital of Germany, being the property of the houſe of Auſtria.

In 1715 arts and manufactures began to flouriſh in Germany, chiefly owing to the Proteſtants who fled there from France after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. Religious diſputation had engaged the learned, for the greater part of this æra: but ſeveral men of eminence had ap-

peared in other branches, as I ſhall elſewhere mention: and though the Germans were far behind the French and Engliſh, they were rapidly improving at the end of that period, we are now contemplating.

TWELFTH LETTER.

POLAND, in which I include Lithuania and Poliſh Pruſſia, was of little conſequence in 1453. In 1386 Jagellon the great duke of Lithuania had married the heireſs of Lewis king of Poland, and in her right he had poſſeſſed himſelf of that crown. His dominions beſides what I have mentioned, then conſiſted of White Ruſſia, Podlachia, Volhinia, Red Ruſſia, Moldavia, Wallachia, and the Ukraine. The deſcendants of this marriage continued to poſſeſs the ſceptre of Poland till 1572, when the male line became extinct on the death of Sigiſmund Auguſtus. The diet then declared the crown ſhould be in future elective, and their choice fell on Henry duke of Anjou, in preference of Maximilian who was of the houſe of Auſtria, and who had been a competitor. On Henry's ſucceeding afterwards to the crown of France, they proceeded to a new election, and Stephen Batori prince of Tranſylvania was choſen; who ſtrength-

ened himſelf in the throne, by marrying the ſiſter of the late Sigiſmund Auguſtus.

It is in this place neceſſary to obſerve, that Sigiſmund Auguſtus at a diet held in 1563, had procured a law to be enacted, by which all who were of the equeſtrian, and noble orders, were to enjoy every right provided they were Chriſtians, no matter of what ſect or communion. This diet alſo enacted that there ſhould be perpetual peace between the Catholics, Proteſtants, and thoſe of the Greek church: and every future king was to ſwear to preſerve this agreement between what was termed the diſſidents. At the time of theſe regulations being made, the Catholics were inferior in number to the others: but Batori's queen being extremely bigoted, prevailed on her huſband to favor the Papiſts; and many became of that religion to obtain the honors and emoluments which the crown could beſtow: whilſt on the other hand the Proteſtants and Greeks found themſelves overlooked, inſulted, and oppreſſed.

On the death of Batori in 1586 Sigiſmund III. a grandſon of Guſtavus Vaſa king of Swe-

den was elected. He alſo favored the Catholics, and the agreement as to the diſſidents, was little regarded. Sigiſmund had ſome wars with the Turks and Swedes, in which the Coſſacks were of great ſervice to him. Theſe were a wild race, who preferred living in tents, to any ſettled habitations, and chiefly dwelt on the banks of the Boriſthenes. They acknowledged a ſort of ſubjection to Poland, but being of the Greek church they had little attachment to it: and in the following reign of Ladiſlaus, having been ill treated by ſome of the principal Poles, they threw off all connection.

On the death of Ladiſlaus in 1648, his two brothers, one of whom was a biſhop, and the other a cardinal, became competitors for the vacant throne, and the latter ſucceeded. His name was John Caſimir, and he had to defend himſelf againſt the Coſſacks, the Swedes, and the Turks. Beſides theſe foreign enemies, his dominions were diſtracted by internal diſſenſions. He was therefore glad to conclude a treaty at Oliva in 1660, by which it was ſtipulated amongſt other things, that the agreement as to

the diſſidents, ſhould be fully and effectually carried into execution. Freſh diſturbances however enſuing, he abdicated in 1668; and becoming abbot of St. Germain des Pres in France, he ended his days at Paris.

Michael Wieſnowiſky who was now elected, had ſeveral parts of his dominions wreſted from him, by the Swedes, Ruſſians, and Turks, and at laſt he was forced to become tributary to the latter: but dying in 1674, John Sobieſki, the great marſhal of the kingdom, gave the Turks a dreadful overthrow at Chockzim. In return his countrymen raiſed him to the vacant throne: and he not only threw off the Turkiſh yoke, but by the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, all that had been taken from Poland was reſtored. Auguſtus elector of Saxony next poſſeſſed this troubleſome ſceptre, the chief events of whoſe reign have fallen in with that of Charles XII. of Sweden.

The conſtitution of Poland was a very extraordinary one. It conſiſted of a king and ſenate, the latter being compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburgh, 15 biſhops and

130 laymen. Theſe laymen were made up of the great officers of the ſtate, the Palatines, and Caſtellants. Palatines were lord lieutenants of their reſpective Palatinates, into which Poland was divided: and the Caſtellants were a ſort of deputies under them. On any vacancy in the throne, the nobles of Poland, and the principal clergy met in the plains of Warſaw, and whoever was choſen there, ſigned what was called the Pacta Conventa, by which he engaged not to introduce foreigners into the army or government, and alſo to obſerve ſuch other matters as the meeting thought proper to ſtipulate.

The king was bound to call diets at ſtated times, and he might at any time aſſemble extraordinary ones. When theſe diets aſſembled, one diſſenting voice prevented the enacting of any propoſed meaſure. Previous to a general diet, provincial ones were called, and informed by the king of the meaſures intended to be diſcuſſed at the general one to which they then ſent deputies: but the gentry only had votes in the provincial ones, the people being every where

ſlaves. The great diet conſiſted of the king, the ſenate, and the provincial deputies, which were 170 for Poland and Lithuania, and ſeventy for Poliſh Pruſſia: but in fact the great landed owners of Poland were above all law. They poſſeſſed immenſe tracts of country, with multitudes of ſlaves over whom they were abſolute. They therefore raiſed armies, and carried on hoſtilities againſt each other, and very frequently the new elections for kings were attended with bloody civil wars. The ſtanding army of peaſants belonging to the monarch was about 40,000 men, but the gentry were obliged to ſerve for a limited time, when called on. This country never enjoyed any real proſperity, nor was it poſſible that it ſhould under ſuch a government.

Pruſſia, in 1453, was poſſeſſed by the Teutonic knights: but in 1466, after a very bloody conteſt, Caſimir IV. king of Poland, annexed Poliſh Pruſſia to his dominions; and he alſo obliged them to hold the remainder as his vaſſals. This was not however tamely ſubmitted to, and many wars were the conſequence. Albert, margrave of Brandenburgh, the Teutonic grand-

maſter, having embraced Lutheraniſm, aboliſhed the order, in 1525. He then made a treaty with the Poles, by which he was acknowledged duke of Eaſt Pruſſia; and that title was made hereditary in his family: but their territories were held as fiefs to the Poliſh crown.

In 1657, the elector Frederick William of Brandenburgh, ſtiled the Great, was freed from all vaſſalage, by John Caſimir, king of Poland: and his ſon Frederick, in 1701, with the conſent of his ſubjects, took the title of king, which was ſoon after approved of by the emperor, and he was acknowledged by the crowned heads of Europe. In 1713, he was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick William, and nothing material happened during the two enſuing years.

The kings of Pruſſia are abſolute: but the general medium through which they govern is a court conſiſting of four great officers of ſtate; theſe are, the great maſter, the great burgrave, the great chancellor, and the great marſhal. Under them are different councils and appointments: and the ſtates, which may or

may not be called, as the king pleaſes, conſiſt of counſellors of ſtate, deputies from the nobility, and from the people. The religion of Pruſſia is the Proteſtant, but there is no diſtinction made between the followers of Luther and Calvin.

Previous to the commencement of my preſent æra, the United Swiſs Cantons were, Zurich, Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, Underwald, Glaris, Zug, and Berne: but the conteſt continuing with the houſe of Auſtria, Friburg, Soleure, Baſil, Schaffhauſen, and Appenzel ſucceſſively joined them; and, in the year 1513, the Helvetic League was completed. By their courage, and the ſtrength of their country, they from time to time effectually reſiſted every effort to reſubdue them, till at length, in 1648, their independence was acknowledged by the treaty of Weſtphalia. Neufchatel, which is reckoned a part of Switzerland, in the year 1707, acknowledged the king of Pruſſia for its maſter, who appointed a governor, and derived a ſmall revenue from it. The inhabitants had, however, a ſort of freedom unknown to any other part of

the Pruſſian dominions. Geneva was only an aſſociate, and under the protection of the Helvetic Body, but was in itſelf an independent republic.

The Swiſs Cantons, which were thirteen in number, though formed into a general confederacy, had different forms of government, and different religious ſects. Thoſe of the Catholics were leſs numerous than the Calviniſts, and though at firſt there were ſome religious diſputes, they ſubſided, and toleration prevailed. In ſome of theſe little ſtates, they leaned to ariſtocracy, in others to democracy, and there were others again in which the two were nicely ballanced. One thing only they all agreed on, that every male ſhould be trained to arms: and they univerſally hired out troops to different Chriſtian ſtates, only taking care that their ſoldiers ſhould not fight againſt each other. This was certainly a great blot in the Swiſs character, and the only juſtification attempted is, that if their people were not trained in the field, they would not be qualified to defend their country. The Swiſs who thus ſerved abroad, ſat down

on their return to agriculture, or ſome of the mechanic arts, for all were in rotation engaged in arms, and the arts of peace. Induſtry was their characteriſtic, and though their country is mountainous and poor, they poſſeſſed all the neceſſaries, and moſt of the comforts of life. Luxury was nearly unknown to them; and in the year 1715 the Swiſs were amongſt the moſt virtuous, and conſequently one of the happieſt nations upon earth.

At the cloſe of my laſt æra, you have ſeen the Netherlands, whoſe inhahitants were called Flemings, extremely flouriſhing. Each city and territory had fixed privileges, and had been originally under particular nobles, of different titles, though a little before the commencement of the period I am now treating of, the duke of Burgundy had united in himſelf the different rights of theſe liege lords, and was acknowledged as the head of all the Netherlands. You have ſeen that afterwards theſe rights were transferred to the houſe of Auſtria by marriage: and in my account of Spain I have related what happened under the reign of Philip

II. After the ſeparation of the Seven United Provinces, the remaining ten became the theatre of war, in all the different conteſts that followed between the Spaniards, French, Dutch, Engliſh and Germans; and a part of them became diſmembered, ſince called French and Dutch Flanders.

Though the Flemings loſt moſt of their trade under Philip II. and his ſucceſſors of the houſe of Auſtria, yet they ſtill continued celebrated for different manufactures and agriculture; and the fine arts, particularly painting, flouriſhed amongſt them. But in commerce they were ſupplanted by the Dutch and Engliſh: and in the year 1715, all thoſe advantages of trade, which they had poſſeſſed at the commencement of this æra, had totally diſappeared.

As the Seven United Provinces, which I ſhall in future diſtinguiſh by the general names of Holland or the Dutch, became of conſequence after they had made good their revolution; I ſhall in this place briefly touch upon their hiſtory. In doing ſo, I ſhall not however give any account of their wars, as they are partly already related,

and the remainder will fall in with my account of England. No ſooner had Spain acknowledged their independence than they uſed every exertion to become a commercial people. From the toleration given to all religions, though the eſtabliſhed one was that of calvaniſm, their country ſoon became crouded with inhabitants; and in a very ſhort time they roſe to be a formidable naval power. But they had a ſchiſm in their own ſect of religion, that for a time created great diſturbances. Two learned divines differed on points that were beyond the human underſtanding. Theſe were Gomar and Arminius, and prince Maurice of the houſe of Orange, and Barnevelt the Penſioner, who were opponents in politics, took a part in the conteſt, the former ſiding with Gomar, and the latter with Arminius. Maurice prevailed, and the followers of Arminius being condemned in a clerical council that had been aſſembled, one hundred of their miniſters were baniſhed. Barnevelt and the celebrated Grotius were treated with more ſeverity, for being tried by commiſſioners nominated in fact by Maurice, they were found guilty

of doing all they could to vex the church of God: for which Barnevelt was beheaded in 1619, and Grotius ſentenced to perpetual impriſonment; from which he afterwards made his eſcape. After this a ſon of Barnevelt being detected in a conſpiracy againſt Maurice ſaved himſelf by flight; but his brother, who was alſo concerned, was taken and executed.

It is neceſſary to explain the foregoing tranſaction, by obſerving that Holland was torn by two political parties. The one for the office of Stadtholder, which had been always given to a prince of the houſe of Orange. The other was adverſe to that appointment, and preferred what was called the Grand Penſioner, to be at the head of the republic. The difference lay in the latter being only the firſt in all civil matters, whilſt the former poſſeſſed not only that ſituation, but was alſo the commander of both navy and army. Thus religion was made by Maurice the inſtrument of revenge and ambition; and he ſucceeded in ruining his adverſary.

In the beginning of the 17th century the Dutch made good a ſettlement on the iſland of

Java, and laid the foundation of the city of Batavia, the capital of all their Eaſt India poſſeſſions. In 1651 they took the Cape of Good Hope and ſeveral other ſettlements from the Portugueſe, or rather from Spain: and opening a trade with China, together with their poſſeſſing the Spice Iſlands, they had a moſt beneficial commerce between Europe and the Eaſt, which was under the conduct of their Eaſt India Company formed in 1620. They were alſo deeply engaged with the Weſt Indies, and had a company eſtabliſhed for managing affairs in that quarter of the globe. In ſhort the proſperity of their marine and commerce is ſtrongly exemplified by a few undoubted facts. From the year 1623 to 1636 they fitted out 1800 ſhips, for trade and its protection, and during that period they took from the Spaniards 500 ſail, ſome of which were laden with gold and ſilver and of immenſe value.

The conteſt between the De Wits and William afterwards king of England, has fallen in elſewhere. I ſhall only add here that De Wit had been made Grand Penſioner on the death of Maurice: and when William died, in whom the

Stadtholderſhip had been revived, that office was for a time again laid aſide.

The conſtitution of Holland was of a complicated nature, each province having its own particular laws, and yet the whole, in matters of general concern, being bound by general rules. Theſe were enacted by delegates, who when aſſembled were called the ſtates-general, and in which nothing could paſs into a law, without the approbation of the delegates of all the provinces. Beſides the ſtates-general, there was a council, conſiſting of twelve deputies, whoſe duty it was to prepare, whatever was to be ſubmitted to the ſtates-general. Theſe counſellors were ſent as follows. Two for Gelderland—three for Holland—two for Zealand—two for Utrecht, and Frieſland, Overyſſel and Groningen, ſent one each. I do not think it neceſſary to go into any minutiae, as to inferior juriſdictions, and I ſhall only add, that there were no titles of nobility, in the Dutch Republic.

When it is conſidered, that Holland at the time it ſhook off the yoke of Philip II. was almoſt a

marſh, and that it was neceſſary to bank out the Sea; its riſe to greatneſs, is perhaps the moſt extraordinary exertion ever made by man. In the year 1715 it had become, the firſt commercial country of the world. It had extenſive, and lucrative ſettlements in the Eaſt, and ſome alſo in the Weſt-Indies. Beſides her numerous fleets for commerce, ſhe was able to diſpute the ſovereignity of the ocean. Her territories in Europe, now abounded with multitudes of towns and villages and ſeveral magnificent cities. And ſhe had a population ſuperior, for her extent of country, perhaps to any nation in the world. She was alſo in ſome degree diſtinguiſhed by the fine arts, and no country was to be compared with her in actual proſperity, England alone excepted. Such was the conſequence, of her liberality to thoſe of every religion, and the free government eſtabliſhed amongſt them. But in her vaſt wealth, and extended commerce, ſhe had the ſeeds of deſtruction: and in my next æra we ſhall behold her very inferior indeed to her ſituation in 1715.

THIRTEENTH LETTER.

HENRY VI. was on the throne of England in the year 1453, the weakneſs of whoſe mind you have ſeen in the laſt æra. In 1459 the duke of York ventured openly to avow his claim to the crown, in which he was ſupported by the famous earl of Warwick, who got the name of King-maker, from the ſucceſs generally attending his arms, and from his frequently changing ſides. Being ſucceſsful in the field a parliament was called by the Duke, and its deciſion was, that Henry ſhould hold the ſceptre for life, and the reverſion to be in York and his heirs to the excluſion of the iſſue of Henry.

But though the weak king aſſented to this arrangement the queen reſolved to protect the rights of her ſon, A new war was the conſequence, during which the duke of York periſhed in battle. Other actions took place and at length a deciſive one was fought at Stanton in Yorkſhire. The queen had 60,000 men whilſt Ed-

ward, the young duke of York had only two-thirds of that number. But having Warwick the greateſt general of the age on his ſide, he proved victorious. On this occaſion, 40,000 men were left dead on the field. The queen with her huſband and ſon were obliged to take ſhelter in Scotland: and the priſoners of rank, as was uniformly the caſe during the conflict, between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, were put to death.

York was now acknowledged by parliament, under the title of Edward IV. The queen however having raiſed new forces, ventured another battle at a place called Hexham, where being again defeated, Henry was taken priſoner and lodged in the tower of London. Many executions followed, and at the ſame time that Edward thus gratified the cruelty of his nature, he was practiſing and encouraging the moſt licentious gallantry in his court.

Warwick now adviſed Edward to ſolicit the hand of the princeſs Bona of Savoy; and it being agreed to, the earl was diſpatched to obtain her

in marriage. Having procured her conſent Warwick returned, when to his aſtoniſhment he found the king had in his abſence, raiſed Elizabeth Woodville one of his own ſubjects, to be the partner of his throne. Uſing words expreſſive of his feelings, Edward increaſed his reſentment by ſtriking him off the roll of privy counſellors: and boiling with vengeance he reſolved on a revolt. He firſt however brought the duke of Clarence to join in his views by giving him a daughter in marriage; and he then commenced open hoſtilities.

The conteſt that enſued was attended with various ſucceſs. Edward was taken priſoner, but regained his liberty. Clarence and Warwick were afterwards obliged to take refuge in France. There Warwick became reconciled to Henry's queen, and returning to England Henry was reſtored, Edward being forced to retire to Holland. But he was ſoon enabled to renew the conteſt, and proving victorious the unfortunate Henry was re-conveyed to the Tower. Not long after this Warwick who had been deſerted by

Clarence, fell in a battle fought at Barnet: and Margaret who had arrived with ſuccours from France, made her laſt effort at Tewkeſbury, where, after being defeated, ſhe and her ſon were taken priſoners. The prince of Wales, on being aſked by Edward how he dared to enter his kingdom without leave, boldly replied that he had come to revenge his own and his father's wrongs. On this the inhuman monarch ſtruck him with his guantlet, and the dukes of Glouceſter and Clarence, with ſome others who were preſent, inſtantly diſpatched him. The Bloody Glouceſter then proceeded to London, and concluded with putting the unfortunate Henry to death. Thoſe of rank who had taken part with the houſe of Lancaſter then periſhed on the ſcaffold: and many of an inferior ſtation who were wealthy alſo ſuffered, that the king might ſeize upon their riches. As for Margaret ſhe was ranſomed by the king of France.

Edward now gratified the martial ſpirit of the nation, by an invaſion of France: but Lewis XI. giving him a ſum of money, he returned to England, to ſpend it on his debaucheries; which in

a ſhort time put an end to his life. Before his death, he had his brother Clarence, tried, condemned, and drowned in a butt of Malmſey wine, it being the death preferred by that prince. The real cauſe of this ſentence was probably his former junction with Warwick: but the avowed one was, ſome expreſſions he had uſed, on the execution of his friend Mr. Thomas Burdet. The king had killed a favorite deer of the latter, who in a paſſion, wiſhed the horns in Edward's belly; for which he was tried and executed: and Clarence had unguardedly expreſſed his reſentment at ſo infamous a procedure.

Edward V. was only in his thirteenth year at the death of his father, and his uncle Glouceſter who was equally deformed in mind and body, by his intrigues, obtained the protectorſhip. Glouceſter then contrived to get the younger brother of the king alſo into his power: and under the pretence of its being a place of ſafety, they were lodged in the Tower. The protector by his creatures, the chief of whom was the duke of Buckingham, now ſpread reports of their illegitimacy. The principal nobility were alſo founded

on the occaſion, and one of them, named Haſtings, appearing ſteady in the cauſe of Edward, his execution was reſolved on. The mode of it is ſo ſingular, and gives ſuch a picture of the times, that I ſhall briefly mention it. The protector called a council at the Tower, and there bearing his arm, which had always been withered, he exclaimed, ſee what the ſorcereſs my queen ſiſter, and that wretch Shore's wife have done by their witchcraft! Their ſpells have reduced my arm to this condition, and my whole body would have ſuffered the ſame calamity, but for a timely detection. Lord Haſtings replied, if they have committed ſuch a crime they deſerve puniſhment. If!—cries Glouceſter; doſt thou anſwer me with if's? I tell thee they have conſpired my death; and that thou, traitor, art an accomplice in their crime. Then giving a ſignal, a body of ſoldiers entered, and Haſtings was ordered to execution, and inſtantly beheaded. The lords Rivers and Grey, two other friends of the young king, met a ſimiliar fate, and lord Stanley was taken into cuſtody. It is neceſſary to obſerve in expla-

nation of the above, that Shore's wife had been the favorite miſtreſs of Edward.

By means of theſe violent acts, and the propagation of whatever ſtories he pleaſed, England was prepared for his ſeizing on the crown. He then procured the murder of his nephews, and taking the title of Richard III. he endeavoured to gain the affections of the multitude by two ſplendid coronations; one at York and the other at London: and he was likewiſe particularly attentive to the wiſhes of the clergy.

Richard had very conſiderably rewarded the duke of Buckingham. But the latter did not think his ſervices ſufficiently requited: and he at length openly revolted. This ended in his being taken and executed: and Aſhton an abandoned villain, was then ſent to try thoſe who had joined him, which commiſſion he executed without regard to any regular law, and in a manner ſhocking to humanity.

Richard eaſily prevailed on parliament to ſanction his uſurpation; but he had a formidable competitor in the earl of Richmond, who was by the

female line deſcended from the houſe of Lancaſter. He alſo felt that on the part of the houſe of York, the crown belonged to the daughter of his brother Edward. To cure the laſt defect in his title, he reſolved to divorce his wife, who had been the widow of that very prince of Wales whom he murdered, and marry his niece. The latter, however, treated his overtures with juſt indignation; and the former was ſuppoſed to die of grief; a fate the baſeneſs of her conduct had well merited.

Richmond, who had raiſed a body of forces on the continent, landed at Milford-haven, and being ſoon joined by numbers, he gave Richard battle at a place called Boſworth. In it he proved victorious, his competitor being amongſt the ſlain. He was then proclaimed by the title of Henry VII. being the firſt Britiſh king of the houſe of Tudor: and marrying the daughter of Edward IV. the claims of both York and Lancaſter were united in their perſons.

Some of thoſe who had eſpouſed the cauſe of Richard, had fled from England, and a plot was

now formed of a ſingular nature. The duke of Clarence had left a ſon named Edward. He had been kept a cloſe priſoner in the Tower, by which means his perſon was unknown to the people: and the conſpirators fixed on one Lambert Simnel the ſon of a baker to perſonate him. Being properly trained, Ireland was fixed on as a place for Simnel's firſt perſonal appearance, and he acted his part ſo well, as to be acknowledged there by Thomas earl of Kildare, the then lord deputy, and by all the principal people.

Henry now found it neceſſary to provide for his ſafety, and having diſcovered that his mother-in-law, with whom he was on bad terms, had been concerned in the impoſture, he confined her to a monaſtery. His next ſtep was, his producing, and publicly identifying the real earl of Warwick; which effectually ſecured the city of London, and in fact the great body of the Engliſh nation. When Simnel landed with lord Lovet, and other diſcontented ſpirits, he therefore found very few to join his ſtandard, and Henry taking the field, immediately gave battle to the earl of

Lincoln, who commanded on the part of the impoſtor. The victory was complete, Lincoln being ſlain, and Simnel taken priſoner: and the latter was not only pardoned, but employed, firſt in the king's kitchen, and afterwards as one of his falconers.

Henry now gratified his people, by declaring war againſt France, and conſiderable grants were made him by parliament. The levying the new taxes, however occaſioned a ſlight inſurrection, headed by one John a Chamber, which ended in the execution of the leader: and Charles, king of France, making overtures of peace, Henry concluded the treaty of Eſtaples, which I have before recited.

A new competitor for the crown now appeared, who alledged he was the duke of York, the ſecond ſon of Edward IV. and his claim became the more formidable, as he was acknowledged by the ducheſs of Burgundy the ſiſter of Edward, for her nephew. Thus ſupported, all the diſcontented ſpirits of England looked up to him, and very ſerious calamities threatened the kingdom. Henry

now acted, as indeed he did at all times, with great judgment. He had the death of the real duke of York aſcertained: and by gaining over Sir Robert Clifford, one of the principal conſpirators, he found out the whole contrivance. Perkin Warbeck, a young Jew, born in the Netherlands, the perſon who aſſumed to be York, had been carefully inſtructed how to act his part: and the ſcheme, with all its circumſtances was publicly communicated to the people of England.

Perkin having failed in his attempts to raiſe a ſufficient force in Ireland, France, and Flanders, viſited the court of James III. king of Scotland. There he proved more ſucceſsful, and having obtained a daughter of the earl of Huntley in marriage, James marched an army into England to ſupport his pretenſions. But not finding the Engliſh inclined to join him, he ſoon retreated, and concluded a peace with Henry, by which Perkins was obliged to leave Scotland.

An inſurrection now took place in Cornwall, headed by lord Audley, who was able to penetrate ſo near London, as to encamp on Blackheath. But the king's forces beat them with

great ſlaughter, and lord Audley being executed with ſome other leaders, the reſt of the priſoners to the number of 4000 were diſmiſſed and pardoned. This however, did not inſpire the gratitude it ought, and Warbeck then in Ireland, was invited to join them. On his arrival he took the title of Richard IV. and at the head of 3000 men, made an attempt on Exeter: but on the king's approach, he abandoned his forces and took ſhelter in a monaſtery. He then ſurrendered himſelf on the terms of his life being ſpared. Getting tired of confinement, he however made his eſcape, and again took ſanctuary, from whence he was once more drawn, and confined in the Tower. Some time afterwards he and the earl of Warwick were tried on a charge of having plotted to put the keeper of the Tower to death, in order to effect their eſcape: and being convicted, both were executed.

Henry from the commencement of his reign, endeavored to humble the exorbitant and miſchievous power of the nobles and clergy; and at the ſame time to civilize and raiſe the privileges of the people. One law enacted by him had

very important conſequences. It allowed the nobility to alienate their poſſeſſions, which they could not before do: and this was equally pleaſing to them; and the richeſt commoners, who were thereby enabled to acquire landed property. Another very wholeſome law, reſtrained the nobles from giving livery to any but their menial ſervants: for before that, they had large bodies of men, who wore uniforms, and who were in fact little armies that obeyed their commands. By another act of parliament, Henry likewiſe added ſtrength to the crown, as it enacted, that no man ſhould be puniſhed for ſiding with the king for the time being, whether he was or was not entitled to the throne.

Henry was not ſo ſucceſsful in his attempts to reform clerical abuſes. He applied to the Pope to aboliſh ſanctuaries: but all he was able to obtain, was a regulation, that thieves, robbers, and murderers who took ſanctuary, ſhould have the benefit of it only once; and if they quit it, and committed new offences, they were to be given up to the civil juriſdiction.

In regard to the people at large, this wiſe prince quickly ſaw that commerce alone could effectually raiſe their power. When he obtained the crown there was in fact no trade. All the towns had been built near one or other of the great caſtles, for the double purpoſe of protection and employment, from their rich and powerful owners. But by the wiſe laws and ſteady conduct of Henry, the people became every where ſecure: and by the encouragement given to traffic, towns and cities were built or improved, in the ſituations beſt ſuited to the imports and exports of the country. The king and queen of Spain happening to be drove into an Engliſh port, in their paſſage from one part of their dominions to another, were received by the politic Henry with the greateſt attention and hoſpitality: and in return, he obtained a commercial treaty highly advantageous to England.

This prince found his kingdom in a ſtate of poverty, anarchy, and deſolation: and he had the happineſs of leaving it at the time of his death, which happened in the year 1509, in a

ſtate of peace, order and proſperity. He is accuſed of having been avaricious, and that his taxes were oppreſſive; and certain it is, that his death was not regretted by the great body of his ſubjects. But he found, that to be powerful, the public treaſury ſhould be prepared for every emergency: and if the people were more burthened than in former reigns, they ſhould have conſidered, that he had well enabled them to bear the difference. They ſhould alſo have reflected that the ſums thus levied, were neither ſquandered in war, nor expended on his pleaſures. On one occaſion, he releaſed every man in the kingdom, who was confined for debts under forty ſhillings, by paying their creditors; which ſum was equivalent to 20l. at leaſt of our preſent currency: and he frequently lent money free of intereſt, to forward uſeful commercial ſpeculations. Henry VII. had without doubt ſome faults, but they were few in number: and he did more for the real happineſs of England, than any of her former kings, Alfred alone excepted.

Henry VIII. mounted the throne with every poſſible advantage; but he very ſoon proved himſelf unworthy of it. He began with proſecuting Empſon and Dudley, two judges that his father had employed, to enquire into the treaſons that had been committed during his reign; not for the purpoſe of puniſhing thoſe who had been guilty with death; but by fines which were paid into the public treaſury. They had of courſe become extremely unpopular, and ſo far their trial was pleaſing to the people. But no crime being proved againſt them during the preceding reign; they were now falſely accuſed of a plot againſt the new king; for which they were condemned and executed. Henry's next ſtep was to gratify his own ambition, and the wiſhes of the people, by ſending an army into France, and ſoon after following at the head of another. This was in aid of his ally and father-in-law Ferdinand king of Spain; and the conteſt ended by a treaty with Lewis XII. of France, the particulars of which I have before related.

Whilſt Henry was engaged in this war, James IV. of Scotland, had invaded England. But the earl of Surrey at the head of an Engliſh army gave him a dreadful overthrow at Flouden, the Scottiſh king and his chief nobility being amongſt the ſlain. Henry inſtead of following up this blow, liſtened to the ties of blood; and generouſly granted peace to his infant nephew, the eldeſt ſon of his ſiſter Margaret, by the late king of Scotland; and who was his father's ſucceſſor in that kingdom.

Henry, being extremely addicted to pleaſure, anxiouſly ſought for a miniſter, who would ſave him the burthen of attending to public affairs. There was a man about him, exactly ſuited to his diſpoſitions. This was Thomas Wolſey, a gentleman of ſmall fortune, who in his father's reign had obtained the deanery of Lincoln. He ſoon ingratiated himſelf with the king by the moſt ſubmiſſive conduct. He at the ſame time joined in every ſcene of diſſipation, and aſſiſted Henry in all his pleaſures and amours: till he at length obtained the moſt abſolute influence over this weak and wicked monarch. Not ſa-

tisfied with the higheſt offices England could afford, he aimed at the papacy: and under the falſe hopes held out to him by the emperor Charles V. he prevailed on Henry to join againſt Francis the firſt, till he was convinced of Charles's hypocriſy, when he made his maſter change ſides, as I have elſewhere related.

Wolſey, though not able to obtain the triple crown, became a firſt favorite with the ſee of Rome. He was made legate of England for life, obtained a cardinal's hat, and procured a bull from the Pope, to create knights and counts at his pleaſure, to legitimize all born out of wedlock, to give degrees in arts, law, phyſic, and divinity, and to grant diſpenſations in all caſes whatſoever. Theſe papal powers united to thoſe of prime miniſter, made him almoſt greater than the king himſelf, to whom however he was all meanneſs and ſubmiſſion, whilſt he looked down upon, and treated with contempt the higheſt nobles of the land. Of theſe, the duke of Buckingham alone dared to complain. Wolſey in return had him accuſed of conſulting a fortune teller, as to his ſucceſſion to the crown,

and alſo of affecting popularity: and on theſe charges he was tried by his peers in the court of the high ſteward, condemned, and executed.

The king having exhauſted all the money his father had left in the treaſury, beſides the uſual revenues of the crown, it became neceſſary to provide for the continuance of his vicious and idle purſuits. Wolſey readily obtained a grant from the clergy: but on applying to the houſe of commons, they only voted half what was required, and that to be raiſed by four annual payments. Wolſey however levied the whole at once, which occaſioned a juſt and general diſcontent.

The next ſtep taken by the cardinal, was an attempt to raiſe money on the king's authority alone. This the people very properly deemed a breach of Magna Charta, and abſolutely refuſed compliance. Henry then pretended it was without his knowledge, and in lieu of it, he demanded what was called a benevolence, which was in fact almoſt the ſame thing. The citizens of London therefore took a decided part

againſt it, and for the preſent, both theſe modes of obtaining money were abandoned.

Wolſey now founded two new colleges at Oxford, for the endowment of which he had obtained leave from the Pope to ſuppreſs ſome monaſteries, whoſe funds were in future to be applied to that purpoſe: thus doing a popular act without expence, or inconvenience to himſelf, or to the nation. At this period Wolſey was the richeſt ſubject probably in the world, having amaſſed immenſe riches from the various places he held. He was archbiſhop of York, biſhop of Durham, abbot of St. Albans, cardinal legate for life, lord chancellor, and prime miniſter of England; and he had alſo the revenues of two ſees in Spain, and a penſion from Francis I. of France: but he was on the eve of falling from all his greatneſs.

Henry had been married 18 years to Catharine of Aragon, the widow of his brother Arthur, and the aunt of the emperor Charles V. During that period, he never conceived that he had been guilty of any crime, and ſhe had borne him three children, one of whom named Mary,

was ſtill living. The fact was, that Henry had never ſolicited any lady in vain till he paid his attentions to Anna Bullen a maid of honor to the queen, and who was poſſeſſed of uncommon wit and beauty. Finding her unattainable in the ordinary way, he reſolved to gratify his paſſion by raiſing her to the throne. He therefore declared his conſcience would not allow him longer to cohabit with one who had been the wife of his brother; and not doubting the Pope's compliance, he applied to Clement VII. who then filled the papal chair, for a divorce.

Clement was puzzled how to act, not only as another Pope had ſanctioned the nuptials in queſtion, but from the fear of offending the emperor. He therefore reſolved on procraſtination, and a long eccleſiaſtical controverſy was ſet on foot, as to the legality or illegality of this marriage. Henry hoped in this exigency to find a warm friend in Wolſey; but he manifeſtly ſided with the Pope, allowing cardinal Campegio who had been ſent to England, to act as his colleague, to take the chief management. This conduct highly irritated Henry, and being

informed that Thomas Cranmer a very learned and able Engliſh divine, had declared his marriage with Catharine void, he immediately took him into his confidence. The diſgrace of Wolſey inſtantly followed, and not long afterwards he was arreſted on a charge of high treaſon. Death however prevented his being tried, and his riches which were immenſe, were ſeized on by the king.

By Cranmer's advice the different univerſities of Europe were conſulted on the validity of the marriage; and Henry's money being pretty liberally diſtributed, their anſwers were favorable to his paſſion, notwithſtanding the emperor had alſo exerted himſelf on the ſide of his aunt. Thus ſanctioned, Cranmer, now archbiſhop of Canterbury, pronounced the divorce. He then performed the ceremony of the king's marriage with Anna Bullen; and her coronation was celebrated with the utmoſt magnificence. It is ſomewhat ſingular that Henry not many years before this had wrote a book againſt Luther, for which the court of Rome had given him

the title of Defender of the Faith, one that is ſtill retained by the kings of England.

When Clement was informed of this tranſaction, he commanded Henry on pain of eccleſiaſtical cenſure, to take Catharine again as his only lawful wife. Inſtead of complying, the king inſtantly declared himſelf the head of the Engliſh church. A great change had before this taken place in the minds of his ſubjects, as to the papacy, and the clergy thought proper to acknowledge him. So did the parliament, and thus ſupported, Henry bade defiance to all the thunders of the Vatican. Many of the Monks indeed were diſſatisfied, but inſtead of regarding them, the king proceeded to ſuppreſs all monaſteries and other religious houſes; at the ſame time expoſing to the people, the impoſitions and vices of the nuns and friars. The lands and revenues of thoſe eſtabliſhments were either granted by Henry to his favorites, or converted to enrich the public treaſury: and thus was England ſevered from the papal juriſdiction.

The religious notions of Henry were equally adverſe to the doctrines of Luther and the Pope: and he procured an act of parliament eſtabliſhing his creed, which has been juſtly ſtigmatized by the name of the bloody ſtatute. Before this law, ſeveral conſcientious men had been put to death for refuſing to acknowledge his ſupremacy in matters of religion: amongſt whom were Fiſher biſhop of Rocheſter, and ſir Thomas More, who had ſucceeded Wolſey as chancellor, and who was one of the moſt virtuous men of his time. But now, not only thoſe who denied his ſupremacy, but all who refuſed to admit tranſubſtantiation, or maintained that the communion in both kinds were neceſſary, or that prieſts might marry, or that vows of chaſtity might be broken, or that private maſſes were uſeleſs, or auricular confeſſion unneceſſary, were to forfeit their lives: and the conſequence was, that Papiſts and Proteſtants were frequently burned together.

Anna Bullen, who was ſecretly a Lutheran, had many enemies; and Henry having transferred

his affections to Jane Seymour, readily liſtened to every accuſation againſt the queen. She was therefore brought to trial before the parliament on charges of adultery with different perſons, and of inceſt with her own brother: and the latter, together with three others were found guilty, as was alſo Anna Bullen. Their executions followed, the queen meeting her fate with the utmoſt fortitude, and perſiſting in her innocence to the laſt. Indeed it has been univerſally allowed, that ſhe was falſely accuſed, before that ſervile aſſembly that condemned her: and the infamous Henry the day after her death, married her rival, who ſurvived only a year, having firſt borne him a ſon, named Edward.

Amongſt thoſe that periſhed, under the bloody ſtatute, was Thomas Cromwell, originally the ſon of a blackſmith, but who had riſen to be the favorite of Henry. He was a Lutheran, and owed his death to the contrivances of biſhop Gardiner, and the duke of Norfolk, who were ſecretly friends to the Pope,

Henry having ſeen a picture of Anne, daughter to the duke of Cleves, and ſome political motives coinciding with her apparent beauty, he obtained her in marriage. She however by no means anſwered the expectations raiſed by the painter, and he ſolicited, and obtained a divorce, from a convocation of his ſubmiſſive clergy. One of the reaſons affixed by him for ſeeking it I ſhall inſert for its curioſity. He alledged that though he had given an outward, he had withheld his inward aſſent to their nuptials.

His fifth wife, was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk. With her he was ſo much pleaſed, that he had public thanks given to God for his good fortune: but afterwards finding out, that ſhe had been unchaſte before marriage, he had her, and lady Rochford, who had aſſiſted her in her amours, condemned, and executed. The parliament that convicted them, at the ſame time enacted, that any woman not a virgin, marrying a king of England, ſhould be guilty of High Treaſon. This he took care, not to bring in queſtion in his own caſe, as he

now married Catherine Parr, the widow of lord Latimer.

Henry in the latter part of his reign quarrelled with his nephew James V. king of Scotland, for refuſing to throw off the papal yoke. This produced a war, in which James was unſucceſsful, and on his death, peace was concluded with his daughter Mary, whoſe misfortunes I ſhall elſewhere have occaſion to relate.

Catherine was a favorer of the reformation, but having once narrowly eſcaped deſtruction by interceding for ſome Lutherans who were to be burned; and Anne Aſcue a woman of beauty and merit having ſuffered for denying the real preſence, ſhe never afterwards interfered. This abominable tyrant, frequently harangued the lords and commons praiſing his own conduct, and the gratitude of his people, all of which was re-echoed by the acclamations of thoſe debaſed aſſemblies. As Henry had no ſtanding army their ſervility is not eaſily accounted for. I think it can only be placed, to the extraordinary ſtate of religion, and the power given the king,

by the bloody ſtatute. Under it perſons of every perſuaſion had ſuffered; and men terrified by ſuch examples ſubmitted to every thing, rather than incur the reſentment of the tyrant.

During the laſt four years of Henry's reign he became more dreadful than ever, having a ſore in one of his legs which gave him great pain: and at length he expired in the year 1547, with all the horrors incident to a life ſo abominably wicked. His death ſaved the duke of Norfolk who was then under ſentence for an alledged offence of high treaſon; but his ſon lord Surrey, who had been condemned on the ſame charge, was previouſly executed.

Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the VI. a minor; and his uncle the duke of Somerſet obtained the protectorſhip. By his aid Cranmer was now enabled to eſtabliſh a reformation in the church. But a great proportion of the people were ſtill attached to the papacy: and on it and other accounts, ſome inſurrections took place, which were ſuppreſſed.

Scotland had alſo its religious controverſies, where George Wiſhart a zealous reformer, was burned at the inſtigation of cardinal Beahun, and the latter in conſequence of it, had been aſſaſſinated. On an application to the protector, he interfered on behalf of the Scotch Proteſtants, and the Engliſh, beat a Catholic army commanded by the earl of Arran. But the duke of Somerſet failed in his great object, the obtaining Mary the young queen of Scots for Edward, ſhe being ſent into France, and given in marriage to the then dauphin.

A ſtrong party of the nobility, headed by the duke of Northumberland now conſpired againſt the protector, who was a man of talents and virtue; and under a falſe accuſation of high treaſon they had him condemned and executed. Northumberland then poſſeſſed himſelf of the adminiſtration, and having concluded a peace with France and Scotland, he planned the elevation of his ſon lord Guilford Dudley to the throne of England. Edward who was a very promiſing prince being in a ſtate of health, from which he could not recover, was prevailed on to make a will be-

queathing the crown to lady Jane Grey his relation: and a marriage between her and lord Dudley immediately took place.

Henry VIII. on the failure of Edward without iſſue, had limited the ſucceſſion to the princeſs Mary his daughter by Catharine of Arragon, and on the death of the young king, ſhe had a formidable party. Lady Jane was however in the firſt inſtance proclaimed. But the conteſt was ſhort; and Mary's party prevailing, Northumberland was executed, and Lady Jane and her huſband committed to the tower.

Mary now gave her hand to Philip II. king of Spain, which occaſioned great diſcontent to the Engliſh. A fruitleſs inſurrection was the conſequence, headed by Sir Thomas Wyat, who was taken and executed: and Dudley and lady Jane ſoon after periſhed on the ſcaffold. The latter was one of the moſt accompliſhed and amiable women of her time, and the attempt to place her on a throne was very much againſt her inclinations.

When Mary aſſerted her right to the crown, ſhe had promiſed to let the then eſtabliſhed religi-

on continue. But ſhe had no ſooner ſecured her elevation, than ſhe put herſelf under the controul of Gardiner and Bonner, two biſhops, who were bloody bigots, and the papal power was fully reſtored. Multitudes were then condemned for hereſy and committed to the flames, with every circumſtance of barbarity. Amongſt thoſe who thus periſhed were five biſhops, namely, Hooper, Ferrar, Ridley, Latimer and Cranmer, all of whom ſuffered with the moſt heroic conſtancy. The latter however had been prevailed on to ſign an abjuration of the Proteſtant religion, by the promiſe of life; notwithſtanding which he was brought to the ſtake. There he exclaimed whilſt he thruſt the hand, which had ſigned the declaration, into the hotteſt part of the fire "oh thou unworthy hand," till it was utterly conſumed.

This abominable conduct, added to the loſs of Calais, which was taken by the French, made her odious to the greater part of her ſubjects: and Philip her huſband having treated her with great neglect, ſhe fell into a bad ſtate of health, which carried her off in the year 1558, after

a reign of five years, which has entitled her to the appellation of The Bloody Queen Mary.

Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry, by Anna Bullen, being known to be a Proteſtant, had lived in fact a ſort of ſtate priſoner. Debarred the uſual pleaſures of youth, ſhe had applied herſelf to the ſtudy of languages and ſcience, and when ſhe was raiſed to the throne, ſhe in moſt inſtances proved herſelf worthy of it. Soon after her exaltation, her hand was ſolicited by her brother-in-law; but, as might well be conceived, ſhe inſtantly rejected that perſecuting bigot.

The great body of the people were at this time either Proteſtants, or ſtrongly inclined to that religion; to which the dreadful cruelty of the monks in the reign of Mary, who were foremoſt in all the executions, had not a little contributed. Elizabeth therefore, with the aid of her parliament, very ſoon adopted what has ever ſince been the eſtabliſhed religion of England. There were then in the kingdom 9,400 beneficed clergymen, of whom 14 biſhops, 12 archdeacons, 15 heads of colleges, and about

eighty others, gave up their preferments, rather than abandon the papal tenets. Elizabeth required the utmoſt prudence to guard againſt the machinations of the ſee of Rome, both amongſt the neighbouring nations, and her own ſubjects; and ſhe therefore diligently ſtudied to render her people flouriſhing and happy.

The three men whom ſhe moſt confided in was, Robert Dudley, afterwards earl of Leiceſter, ſon to the late duke of Northumberland, and Bacon and Cecil. The two latter were worthy of her confidence, but the former did not deſerve the diſtinction that ſhe paid him.

Mary queen of Scotland now aſſumed the title of queen of England. This was on the pretence of Elizabeth being illegitimate, and a Proteſtant; and Mary herſelf being a papiſt, had of courſe many partizans. But Elizabeth not only thwarted all her views as to the Britiſh ſceptre, but forwarded by her intrigues a revolution in the religion of Scotland; and Mary was at length forced to acknowledge Elizabeth. Philip II. now became the inveterate enemy of the Britiſh queen. He endeavoured to ſtir up

a rebellion in Ireland: whilſt ſhe on her part aſſiſted his revolted ſubjects the Dutch, and Henry IV. of France.

The greateſt ſtain of Elizabeth's reign was the execution of Mary queen of Scots, whoſe extraordinary hiſtory will fall in properly here. That princeſs, after the death of the dauphin, by whom ſhe had no iſſue, married her kinſman the earl of Darnly. From ſome cauſe or other, ſhe ſoon became extremely diſguſted with him, and it was at leaſt ſuppoſed that ſhe indulged a criminal paſſion with David Rizzio, an Italian muſician, who was entertained at her court. Darnly, ſtung with rage and jealouſy, reſolved to deſtroy him in her preſonce, and accompanied by thoſe who were to aſſiſt, he ruſhed into the room, where Rizzio was ſitting at table with Mary, and he was inſtantly diſpatched. Mary was then with child of James I. of England, and it is ſaid the conſequence was, that he could never look on a drawn ſword without ſhuddering.

The earl of Bothwell now ſucceeded Rizzio in Mary's affections, and Darnley's life was

firſt attempted by poiſon. That not ſucceeding, he was ſtrangled, the houſe in which he was murdered being blown up to prevent detection: but the body being found, there were circumſtances that denoted the manner of his death. Mary then married Bothwell, who had previouſly divorced his wife, to make way for this alliance. But before theſe nuptials took place, Bothwell aſſembled the principal noblemen of Scotland, and got them to give under their hands, that as he had lain with the queen againſt her will, they judged it her intereſt to marry him. The people of Scotland had however more virtue than their nobility: and Bothwell being forced to fly, Mary was thrown into confinement. She was then compelled to reſign the crown to her infant ſon James, and the earl of Murray was declared regent. Mary had ſtill a number of partiſans, and eſcaping from priſon put herſelf at their head. They were however defeated, and the conſequence was, that Mary took ſhelter in England. She then applied to Elizabeth for protection, who gave orders for her accommodation, but abſo-

lutely refuſed ſeeing her, till ſhe cleared herſelf of the crimes with which ſhe was charged. The regent on this appeared before Elizabeth in perſon, and Mary by deputation; and at length ſhe was committed a priſoner to Tutbury caſtle. Dreadful convulſions followed in Scotland, where the regent loſt his life: but he was ſucceeded by his brother Lenox, who had got the aid of an Engliſh army. Beſides theſe political diſputes, Scotland was torn by religious diſſenſions, in which numbers on each ſide periſhed.

Mary had all along been treating with the diſcontented in England, and at length the Pope had a bull publicly fixed up in London, excommunicating Elizabeth, and abſolving her ſubjects from their allegiance. This was done by one John Fenton, who far from denying it, gloried in the act, and died with the utmoſt fortitude. Not long after this the duke of Norfolk privately obtained a promiſe of marriage from Mary, who on her part was to get that with Bothwell diſſolved. The duke then formed a plot for the depoſition of Elizabeth; which being diſ-

covered, that nobleman was tried, condemned, and executed.

Mary ſtill flattered herſelf with ſucceſs, being aided by France, Spain, and the Pope; and a new conſpiracy was formed and defeated. Thus provoked, Elizabeth reſolved on her death; and a ſpecial court was erected. It conſiſted of forty-two members of parliament, and five judges, who met in the priſon where Mary was confined. That princeſs proteſted againſt their right to ſit in judgment on a ſovereign queen. They however proceeded, and ſhe was condemned and executed; meeting her fate with a compoſed and ſettled fortitude. Mary was one of the moſt accompliſhed and beautiful women of the age in which ſhe lived; but her crimes well merited the death ſhe ſuffered. She had, however been moſt unwarrantably held in confinement for eighteen years: and in ſuch a ſituation, her plots to regain her liberty, and even to dethrone Elizabeth, cannot excuſe, however it may palliate the trial and execution which took place.

Elizabeth had declined all overtures of marriage; but ſhe choſe to have always a lover,

though their connexion, it is generally admitted, never extended beyond the platonic. The earl of Leiceſter during his life was the favorite, and was almoſt conſtantly her partner in the maſqued balls that were frequently at court. After his death, Devereux earl of Eſſex ſucceeded him; a man remarkable for the beauty of his face and perſon, and who was poſſeſſed of many engaging qualities. He very ſoon had in fact the direction of the ſtate, and from his affable manners became extremely popular. But though the young earl of Eſſex had gained the affections of Elizabeth, who was now upwards of ſixty, he thought her old and ugly, and having once ſaid ſo, it came to her knowledge. Thus irritated, an altercation took place, which ended in her giving him a box in the ear. A reconcilement and ſubſequent quarrel followed, and being tried for miſconduct, Eſſex was ſentenced to go into retirement. He had now recourſe to the groſſeſt flattery, which however proved acceptable, and ſhe gave him to underſtand ſhe would not inſiſt on his being long abſent. But Eſſex thinking himſelf ſecure of her affections, reſolved to

ſeize her perſon, probably with the view of accompliſhing a marriage, and obtaining the crown. In the raſh attempt that followed, he failed, and was taken priſoner: and before her reſentment ſubſided, was condemned and executed. She was, however, never ſeen to enjoy any pleaſure afterwards; and did not long ſurvive him.

Elizabeth certainly had very uncommon talents for governing, and England owed a great deal to her reign: but ſhe was far from amiable in her private character; and thoſe who were immediately about her, both diſliked and feared her.

During the 44 years that Elizabeth poſſeſſed the ſceptre, the people of England began to aſſume a new character, and they peculiarly turned themſelves to naval exertions, which had hitherto been totally neglected. The admirals Drake and Cavendiſh made voyages round the globe; and ſir Walter Raleigh, by his private exertions, eſtabliſhed a colony in New England. You have ſeen in the account of Spain, that England was able to defeat what had been deem-

ed the Invincbie Armada; and whilſt external affairs were thus attended to, home manufactures and agriculture were rapidly advancing. Better houſes began to appear, and ſome attention was paid to elegance and convenience. Theſe improvements were chiefly owing to the inhabitants of the Netherlands; many of whom flying from the perſecuting ſpirit of Philip had found ſhelter and protection in Britain. Added to theſe advantages, literature began to flouriſh; and there were ſome eminent authors both in proſe and verſe, at this period.

James VI. of Scotland and I. of England, the ſon of the unfortunate Mary, united in himſelf every poſſible claim to the Britiſh crown. During his whole reign, the kingdom was at peace, and commerce and the arts were of courſe ſpreading with rapidity. The conſequence was, that new ideas pervaded the houſe of commons: and whilſt they were ſtruggling to circumſcribe and define the regal power, James was as anxiouſly endeavouring to ſupport the royal prerogatives; many of which were highly oppreſ-

ſive, and totally incompatible with rational liberty.

Mary having died a Catholic, the Papiſts looked for peculiar favors from her ſon. But James only tolerated them; and they reſolved on the deſtruction of king, lords and commons. For this purpoſe a ſufficient quantity of gunpowder was placed in vaults, beneath the houſe, where parliament was to aſſemble: and all was ready when an anonymous letter led to the diſcovery. This was written by Sir Henry Piercy, one of the conſpirators, to lord Mount Eagle, whom he wiſhed to preſerve, and contained the following words:—"Think not ſlightly of this warning, though the danger does not appear; yet they ſhall receive a terrible blow, without knowing from whence it comes."—Lord Mount Eagle immediately communicated it at court, and the king alone formed a true conjecture. He thought from the expreſſion, it muſt be by gunpowder. The day before parliament was to meet, they had the vaults ſearched, when not only the powder was diſcovered, but alſo the

man, who was to give it efficacy. His name was Guy Fawkes, who, far from denying it, gloried in his intended enterpriſe. About one hundred of the conſpirators, finding their ſcheme thus baffled, had recourſe to arms, reſolving to ſell their lives dearly; and moſt of them periſhed by the ſword. The remainder, together with Fawkes, were tried and executed.

James ſoon after his acceſſion became extremely attached to a private gentleman, named Robert Carr, whom he created earl of Somerſet. But he was highly unworthy of his favor, and being at length found guilty of having been concerned in poiſoning Sir Thomas Overbury, whom he had cauſed to be ſent to the tower on a falſe accuſation, he was condemned to death. Somerſet had been inſtigated to this act by the counteſs of Eſſex, a woman, as infamous as ſhe was beautiful, and whoſe character Overbury had communicated to the earl to prevent his marrying her; which however took place.

James having pardoned and diſgraced Somerſet, fixed on George Villars for his new favorite;

a man remarkable for his beauty, but without any of thoſe ſolid qualities that fitted him for a ſtateſman. He was in a ſhort time created duke of Buckingham, being the firſt who ever bore that rank in England, who was not of royal blood: and beſides poſſeſſing the king's regard, he had alſo found means to ingratiate himſelf with Charles prince of Wales. With the latter he planned a viſit incog. to the court of Spain, as the prince had thoughts of aſking the hand of the Infanta. This was carried into execution, but the duke by his licentious manners, and particularly by his making love to the ducheſs of Olivarez, wife to the then prime miniſter, gave ſuch offence, that both found it neceſſary to depart. In this expedition they had viſited Paris, where Charles ſaw, and became enamoured of Henrietta the daughter of Henry IV. of France, whom he afterwards made his queen.

During the reign of James, the Dutch groſsly inſulted the Engliſh with impunity. The latter had eſtabliſhed their Eaſt-India Company in 1600, and had obtained ſettlements in the iſlands

of Java, Poleron, Amboyna and Banda. This produced a war between them and the Dutch Eaſt-India Company, which however ended in a peace, by which the Engliſh were to have Amboyna, amongſt other places. But no ſooner were the latter off their guard, than all the ſettlers in that iſland were treacherouſly murdered, and the poſſeſſion of it taken by the Dutch; to which James had tamely ſubmitted.

On the death of James, in the year 1625, the prince of Wales ſucceeded to the crown. There was at this period a very numerous religious ſect in England, who took the name of Puritans. They equally hated the papiſts, and the eſtabliſhment, and many of them were returned into the houſe of commons, called on the king's acceſſion. Beſides theſe, there were numbers of the members who reſolved to diminiſh the oppreſſive prerogatives of the crown. When Charles required a ſum of money to ſuccour the Proteſtants of Germany, they therefore inſtead of granting it, demanded a previous redreſs of grievances, at the ſame time attacking the con-

duct of Buckingham: and the king inſtead of liſtening to their remonſtrances, immediately diſſolved the parliament.

Charles now reſorted to a benevolence, alledging he would repay all that was advanced him. But what he thus got, being totally inadequate to proſecute the war with Spain, in which he was engaged, he called a new parliament. It not only refuſed all ſupplies, but ſtill more ſeverely attacked Buckingham: and in return the king committed Diggs and Elliot, two of the members of the houſe of commons, and the earl of Arundel of the lords, to the Tower. But this raiſed ſuch a ferment, that they were very ſoon releaſed, and the parliament again diſſolved. The infatuated king then reſorted to loans, at the ſame time uſing the moſt oppreſſive means to induce men to grant them; thus every day adding to the public diſcontent.

A war with France had hitherto ever been favorably received by the Engliſh. Charles therefore reſolved to try that expedient, by ſending out a fleet to ſuccour Rochelle, the chief city of

the Hugonots, which was attacked by the French monarch. But it returned without ſucceſs, and this was imputed to the total incapacity of Buckingham, who commanded it. Parliament was now called; and the king condeſcended to promiſe a redreſs of grievances: on which a conſiderable ſupply was granted. A new expedition was then prepared to ſuccour Rochelle; and much againſt the wiſhes of the nation, Buckingham had again the command: but whilſt he was preparing to embark, John Felton, a lieutenant in the army, ſtabbed him to the heart. Far from attempting to eſcape, he gloried in the deed, and was afterwards executed. The expedition went forward under a new leader, but it was alſo unſucceſsful.

The next queſtion that aroſe between the king and people was that of tonnage and poundage. This was a tax on merchandize, which the judges in the laſt reign had ſaid, might be levied at the ſole will and pleaſure of the king. The merchants and parliament now declared the contrary. Charles perſiſted, and after in vain impriſoning

four members of the houſe of commons, he diſſolved the parliament. This houſe of commons had alſo offended the king, by an attack on Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who had aſſerted the divine right of kings.

The Scotch had embraced pretty generally the ſect of Calvin, which being inimical to the Engliſh eſtabliſhment, James had attempted, and Charles reſolved, to put down. Force alone could ſucceed, and money muſt be raiſed. With the ſanction of all the judges, the king now proceeded to levy a tax called ſhip-money, which John Hampden refuſed to pay. A trial was the conſequence, which went againſt the latter: but the nation differed from the court; and it was ultimately to prevail. The diſpute with the Scotch, after fruitleſs negotiations, was again renewed, and force once more reſolved on. Beſides a new levy of ſhip-money, voluntary contributions to a great amount were made; lord Strafford alone contributing 20,000l. But all was inadequate, and after a period of 11 years, Charles was obliged to call a new parliament.

This houſe of commons, far from diſliking Scotch principles, highly approved of them. They therefore inſtead of granting ſupplies, declared, tonnage and poundage—ſhip-money—the ſale of monopolies—and the billeting ſoldiers at the king's diſcretion, to be illegal: and they at the ſame time condemned the court of Star Chamber, the great inſtrument of tyranny during this and former reigns, to be contrary to the Conſtitution. Finding that the purpoſes for which it had been convened could not be effected, this aſſembly was once more diſſolved: but a new one was called, on the approach of a conſiderable Scottiſh army to the borders of England.

Nothing but the moſt extreme neceſſity could have induced this meaſure, and the king reſolved if poſſible to gratify the parliament. Every thing was conceded to it that it required, till it called for a militia, to be officered by them, and not by the king. On this being demanded, Charles exclaimed with juſt indignation, that

th y ſhould not have the command of the army even for a moment.

Before the commons proceeded to this extremity, they had made ſeveral attacks on the friends of the king, and particularly on lord Strafford, whoſe death they procured. That nobleman had done nothing to warrant it; and on his trial made a moſt able defence: but the lords and commons paſſed a bill of attainder, and Charles, at his earneſt requeſt, gave the royal aſſent to it. Strafford acted thus nobly, from thinking his execution might reſtore harmony, between the king and the people: but nothing ſhould have induced Charles to conſent to the death of a man whom he in his conſcience knew to be innocent, and to whom he had been under great obligations. Strafford in the beginning of this reign was on the popular ſide; and it appears to me, that he would have continued ſo, had the commons only looked to the eſtabliſhment of a well limited monarchy.

One cauſe of accuſation againſt the king, was totally unmerited. In Ireland, a dreadful plot

was formed by the Catholics to extirpate the Proteſtants, and in 1641 forty thouſand, of the former were maſſacred. The latter were four times the number of thoſe they attacked, and the riſing being unexpected and every where on the ſame day, there was no averting the deſtruction that followed: but it does not appear that Charles had any thing directly, or indirectly, to ſay to it.

There was at this time no ſtanding army in England, and hoſtilities appearing inevitable both parties made ſuch levies as in their power, and after ſome fruitleſs negotiations, the ſword was appealed to. The royaliſts were commanded by prince Rupert, and the forces of the parliament who were called round heads, by the earl of Eſſex. In the firſt campaign the king had the advantage; during which two of the beſt men, engaged in this civil war periſhed. Theſe were lord Faulkland who had taken part with the king, and John Hampden who had ſided with the parliament. Though acting differently, each was governed as far as men can judge, by principle: and both were highly diſtinguiſhed as to their private characters.

Every day added to the parliamentary force, and its leaders openly avowing their hatred to the church of England, united with the Scotch, at the ſame time ſigning their ſolemn league and covenant for the abolition of epiſcopacy. The Parliament then proceeded to the trial of archbiſhop Laud, and nine other prelates who had been thrown into priſon, as enemies to the nation. Their condemnation and execution followed. Epiſcopacy was aboliſhed; and the Preſbyterian ſyſtem was ſubſtituted in its place. But there now aroſe a new ſect who took the name of Independents. They inſiſted there ſhould be no fixed miniſters, to officiate in religion: and that a perfect equality ſhould exiſt amongſt all orders of men.

I ſhall take little notice of battles or the minutiæ of this conteſt: but endeavour to catch its leading features.

A motion was made, and carried in the houſe of commons, that led to very important conſequences. This was, that no member of parliament ſhould have a chief command in the ar-

my. It obliged the earls of Eſſex, Denbigh, and Mancheſter to reſign, and Fairfax thereupon became generaliſſimo. Soon after this change the king received a complete overthrow at Naſeby. In this action Oliver Cromwell highly diſtinguiſhed himſelf on the part of the parliament, and from thenceforth his fame and reputation, rapidly encreaſed.

Charles was now without reſource, and he preferred ſurrendering himſelf to the Scottiſh army: but they ſoon came to terms with the parliament, and on being paid 200,000l. which they claimed for their ſervices, the unfortunate monarch, was delivered up to his Engliſh enemies.

The parliament though victorious againſt the king, were juſtly fearful of their own army. They therefore ordered a reduction, and alſo that a part of the remainder, ſhould be ſent to Ireland. This was the critical moment for Cromwell, nor did he heſitate. He inſtantly formed a council of officers, and alſo a deputation from the privates, to take into conſideration their

own ſituation, and that of the nation. They then demanded certain things which parliament dare not refuſe, and Cromwell having got poſſeſſion of the king's perſon, at length accuſed eleven of its ableſt members, and who were moſt hoſtile to his views, of deſigns againſt the happineſs of England.

The parliament and citizens of London being now convinced of Cromwell's intentions, after ſome fruitleſs negotiations, reſolved to oppoſe force to force. But on more mature conſideration, they ſuffered the army to enter the city without oppoſition; and Fairfax, who ſtill had the nominal command, whilſt Cromwell directed every thing, was complimented with the thanks of both houſes.

A new ſect called Levellers, now appeared in the army, who alledged Chriſt to be their head, and that they would not obey any intermediate rulers. Cromwell with his own regiment, ſuddenly came where they had aſſembled. Two of the moſt inſolent fell by his hand;

others were hanged or impriſoned; and this faction was thus inſtantly annihilated.

The parliament at this time anxiouſly wiſhed to come to terms with Charles, and an army appeared in England, ready to ſupport him. The Scotch, aſhamed of their conduct, alſo armed in his favor. But theſe exertions only haſtened his fate. Cromwell and Fairfax defeated both the Engliſh and Scotch royaliſts, and demanded juſtice on the king. Thoſe who wiſhed to ſave him were then removed from the houſe of commons, and the houſe of lords was aboliſhed. The remainder of the commons, ſince known by the ludicrous name of the rump parliament, now appointed a high court of juſtice, conſiſting of 145 perſons, to try the king; with a man of the name of Bradſhaw for its preſident. When Charles was brought before this tribunal, he ſolemnly denied its juriſdiction, behaving with a calm and manly fortitude. But they proceeded, and being condemned by them, he was publicly beheaded. Before he ſuffered, he highly cenſured himſelf for having conſented

to the death of Strafford; but to the laſt moment he declared the innocence of his intentions in matters of government, and he met his fate with Chriſtian firmneſs, and with a full belief in a happy immortality. Had Charles lived at any other period, it is probable he would have made a good king. But bred up with high ideas of the prerogatives of the crown, he did not at firſt ſufficiently attend to the great change in the genius and ſentiments of the people: and when at length he was ready, to make every wholeſome alteration, it was too late to ſtem the torrent, that ran againſt royalty altogether.

The houſe of commons, if it may be called one, now aboliſhed the royal power, at the ſame time declaring itſelf competent to all the functions of government. They then fixed on a new great ſeal, with the words "the firſt year of freedom by God's bleſſing reſtored 1648." And they proceeded to eſtabliſh this new order of things; being chiefly directed by the intrigues of Cromwell.

Several leading men of the royaliſt party were executed, one of whom was the Duke of Ha-

milton, a Scotch nobleman. That nation, from this and other cauſes, now eſpouſed the part of Charles II. whom they acknowledged to be their king. Cromwell who was ſerving in Ireland, where he had gained great advantages, over the royaliſts and Catholics, was thereupon recalled by the Engliſh commons, and Fairfax having declined acting againſt his old allies the Scotch; Cromwell was declared the commander in chief of the forces of the commonwealth. The firſt battle that followed was at Dunbar, where an inferior but better diſciplined army, under the new general of the Engliſh, gained a ſignal victory. The young king then rallied his forces, and taking the command in perſon, penetrated into England as far as Worceſter, where Cromwell gave him a total overthrow. Scotland then ſubmitted to the conqueror, and Charles, for whoſe head 1000l. was offered, after a variety of almoſt miraculous eſcapes, took ſhelter in France.

The houſe of commons after complimenting Cromwell, declared Scotland annexed to the Engliſh commonwealth, with leave to ſend a

certain number of deputies to their aſſembly; and having both a powerful army and navy, and peace being reſtored at home, they reſolved on war with the Dutch. This was chiefly occaſioned by their ambaſſador St. John having been inſulted in Holland, and one of the 145 who tried Charles being aſſaſſinated in that country. The conteſt was entirely naval, Blake diſtinguiſhing himſelf on the part of the Engliſh, and Van Tromp on the oppoſite ſide. And though ſeveral deſperate engagements took place, it was not for ſome time decided, which was maſter of the ſeas.

The houſe of commons had now become extremely jealous of Cromwell. This he well knew, and took his meaſures accordingly. He therefore cauſed a petition from the army, for ſome arrears, and a redreſs of real or imaginary grievances. Inſtead of complying, they declared ſuch petitions to be high treaſon. This was what Cromwell expected, and having ſecured the co-operation of his principal officers; he took his ſeat in the houſe, being a member of

it. On a ſignal given, a body of ſoldiers then entered; and after reviling the ſpeaker and members, he aſſured them the Lord had done with them. He then turned them out and locking the door, he put an end to the new republic, in about one year after Scotland and England were thus jointly governed.

So odious was the late ſhadow of a houſe of commons, that Cromwell received addreſſes for annihilating it, not only from the army and navy, but from moſt of the corporations in the kingdom. The latter probably hoped, he would call a fair repreſentation, but this was far from his intentions. With the approbation of his chief officers, he ſent ſummonſes to one hundred and twenty-eight perſons of different towns and counties in England; to five of Scotland, and ſix of Ireland. Theſe 139 repreſentatives of the three kingdoms, thus nominated by him, were to govern and make laws during fifteen months, and they were then to nominate the ſame number to be their ſucceſſors.

Cromwell ſeems to have intended this aſſembly to wean the people from parliaments. Thoſe he had choſen were for the moſt part equally deſtitute of rank, education and underſtanding. They were alſo fanatics, and aſſumed ſcriptural and other names, ſome of the latter being perfectly ridiculous. One in particular took the name of Praiſe God Bare Bones, from which this ſtrange aſſembly was called Bare Bones parliament. Having ſat a few months, and rendered themſelves the laughing ſtock of the nation, a great majority of them prevailed on Cromwell to releaſe them from a burthen they were unable to bear. About twenty of them however proteſted againſt their diſſolution, and continued to ſit, till diſperſed by the ſoldiers. When colonel White who commanded the latter, aſked what they did there, they replied they were ſeeking the Lord; and he in return bade them go elſewhere, for to his knowledge he had not been there for many years.

The army, which was in fact every thing, now declared Cromwell Protector of the three kingdoms: and a council of officers, no doubt

with the privity of Cromwell, drew up a written form of government which the Protector was ſworn to obey. The chief articles were "that a council was to be appointed which was not to exceed twenty-one, nor to have leſs than thirteen: that their places were to be for life, or good behaviour and in caſe of vacancies the council was to name three, out of whom the Protector was to chooſe one. The Protector was to be chief magiſtrate—juſtice to be adminiſtered in his name—all magiſtracy and honors to be derived from him—he was to have the power of pardoning murder or except in caſes of treaſon, and all forfeitures were to belong to him. The right of peace, war and alliance to be exerciſed by him, with the approbation of his council. He was to ſummon a parliament, (meaning a houſe of commons) every three years, and to allow it to ſit for five months without adjournment, prorogation, or diſſolution. The bills which they enacted were to be preſented to the Protector for his conſent, but if withheld for twenty days, they were to become laws by the authority of parliament alone. The judges and great officers were

to be choſen with the approbation of parliament. A ſtanding army of 20,000 foot and 10,000 horſe were to be kept up: and the Protector was to hold his office for life, and on his death the place was to be filled up by the council. Theſe were the chief articles, and fifteen perſons the choſen friends of the Protector were named as the firſt counſellors.

There was in theſe regulations, a power in the houſe of commons that could have effectually controuled the Protector, but though he more than once aſſembled that body purſuant to this inſtrument, ſuffice it to ſay, he ſo managed it and the army, as to be in fact abſolute: and one of the chief means of his doing ſo was, by nominating a high court of juſtice for the trial of all offenders againſt the ſtate, inſtead of truſting them to that of a jury. Thus eſtabliſhing a juriſdiction, as contrary to the conſtitution, as that ſtar chamber which had been ſo juſtly odious.

Cromwell was certainly poſſeſſed of great talents, and by his attention to the army, navy, and public affairs, he made England truly formidable.

The Dutch were forced to acknowledge the ſuperiority of the Britiſh flag, to pay a ſum of money, to give up what they had taken from the Eaſt India Company, and thoſe who were ſtill living that had been engaged in the maſſacre at Amboyna, and to abandon the intereſt of Charles II. That prince had alſo found it neceſſary to quit the court of France, the Protector having entered into an alliance with it, in conſequence of which Dunkirk was conquered from the Spaniards, by the joint forces of the French and Engliſh, and put into the poſſeſſion of the latter. The iſland of Jamaica was alſo taken by the Engliſh from Spain: and the Iriſh who had roſe in arms being entirely ſubdued, Cromwell's followers were rewarded with the forfeited lands.

But notwithſtanding his ſucceſſes, and this exaltation of the nation, Cromwell's hypocriſy and ambition had rendered him odious to every deſcription of the people. He felt this, and a book being publiſhed entitled Killing no Murder, the object of which was to prove that it would be a virtuous deed to aſſaſſinate him, it is ſaid he never ſmiled afterwards. Certain it is

that he latterly lived in perpetual dread of a violent death, wearing armour under his cloaths, and conſtantly changing the apartments in which he ſlept. This anxiety at length brought on an ague, which put an end to his life in the year 1658. I ſhall only add, that Cromwell ſacrificed every principle to his ambition, and lived to experience that miſery which muſt for ever be its attendant, when gratified at the expence of virtue.

Richard, the ſon of Cromwell, having been appointed by his father, was acknowledged Protector. Having no talents for government, the diſſenſions of the army, and people, ſoon induced him to abandon it. On this all thoſe that were alive of that houſe of commons, that had beheaded Charles, aſſembled in London. But on their attempting to interfere with the army, general Lambert put an end to their meetings, and the government was then committed to a military council of ten. Much now depended on general Monk, who commanded a body of 12,000 veterans in Scotland. His ſentiments were favorable to royalty, but he carefully con-

cealed them till matters were ripe for their declaration. He therefore negotiated with the council of ten till he found it ſafe to break with them, and then marching towards London they abandoned the government. Having ſecured the concurrence of his troops, Monk now aſſembled the lords and commons according to the uſage under Charles I. and the regal power being recognized, Charles II. ſoon after returned to England, to the great joy of almoſt every deſcription of his ſubjects.

Ten of the principal regicides were now condemned and executed, and the bodies of Cromwell, Bradſhaw and Ireton, were taken from their graves and expoſed on the gallows. A few inſignificant fanatical inſurrections followed, which were ſuppreſſed; and then the royal authority was every where acknowledged. One material change at this time took place, which was the abolition of the feudal tenures and their appendages, an exciſe being given to the king to ſupply the deficiency in point of revenue. It might have been ſuppoſed, that Charles's adverſity would have taught him wiſdom, but on the

contrary, he knew no rule of conduct, but that of gratifying his own pleaſures. He neither attended to the wants or claims of thoſe who had ſuffered in the royal cauſe, and being profuſe on his numerous concubines and in his amuſements, he was perpetually applying to a parliament that had become nearly obſequious, for money. The people at large now loſt all reſpect for a prince that had none for himſelf. Their murmurs were increaſed by a plague that ſwept off 100,000 of the inhabitants of London alone, and by an accidental fire that deſtroyed the greater part of that city. There were alſo other ſources of diſcontent. James, the brother of Charles, the preſumptive heir to the crown, was an avowed bigoted Papiſt. Parliament had been kept ſitting ſeventeen years, though according to law it ought to have been diſſolved at the expiration of three. Charles had alſo made an alliance with Lewis XIV. of France, the avowed enemy of the Proteſtants, and he had declared war againſt the Dutch, the natural allies of England. Beſides all this, the diſſoluteneſs of his court was abominable;

and, in ſhort, the nation was almoſt ripe for another revolution.

At this crital period, one Titus Oates, gave information on oath of a Popiſh plot to deſtroy the king, in which he alledged the gueen, who had been the infanta of Portugal, and James, the brother of Charles were concerned. In conſequence of this, ſeveral Jeſuits were tried and executed; and the houſe of commons not only petitioned the king to remove the queen, but they voted Oates 1200l. a year as a reward for ſo important a diſcovery: but it is now generally believed, that Oates's information was falſe. He was an indigent adventurer of a moſt abominable character, and was totally unworthy of credit on his oath. Another plot alledged at this time, ſeems equally void of foundation. Its object was to take away the life of Oates, a paper to this effect being found in a meal tub, and it was called the meal-tub plot, as the other was that of the Jeſuits.

The houſe of commons now paſſed a bill for excluding James from the ſucceſion, but it was loſt in the lords. In reſentment for this, they

had lord Stafford, who was confined on the teſtimony of Oates, tried and executed. They then petitioned the king to ſuppreſs Popery, and they at the ſame time attacked ſome of his prerogatives. Inſtead of gratifying their wiſhes he diſſolved them, and finding a new one ſtill more violent, he alſo diſmiſſed it, at the ſame time determining to govern in future, with the moſt abſolute authority.

The Preſbyterian party had predominated in the commons. To ſhow his reſentment, they were therefore every where diveſted of their offices; and thoſe only who approved of non-reſiſtance, ſubſtituted in their ſtead. He alſo deprived the city of London of its charter, the citizens having appeared very forward in the cauſe of freedom. This however he reſtored after making ſuch alterations as prevented their having any magiſtrate that did not meet his approbation.

This conduct could not fail of producing great diſcontent, and a very formidable conſpiracy now took place, which was called the Rye-Houſe plot; at the head of which was the duke of

Monmouth, one of Charles's natural ſons, and the lords Shafteſbury, Ruſſel and Grey, together with Algernon Sidney and Hampden the grandſon of him who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the reign of Charles I. were alſo engaged in it. Their object was a change of meaſures by force, but to what length they intended to go, is uncertain. The deſign was however detected before it was ripe for execution. Monmouth received a pardon, Ruſſel and Sidney periſhed on the ſcaffold, and the reſt ſaved themſelves by flight. James now ruled the councils of Charles, and during the remainder of his reign, the will of the prince, in fact ſuperſeded all poſitive law.

Notwithſtanding the profligacy and tyranny of Charles, commerce and manufactures continued to encreaſe; and Lewis XIV. by driving the Proteſtants from his kingdom, greatly added to the proſperity of England and Ireland, as a number of thoſe uſeful, virtuous, and induſtrious people ſettled amonſt them. Literature alſo flouriſhed, and a number of able proſe and poetic writers appeared in the Britiſh dominions.

James II. began his reign with cruſhing a raſh rebellion, headed by the duke of Monmouth, who was defeated, taken, and executed; and Jefferies, an ignorant, blood-thirſty judge, who was ſent to try the rebels, followed up the victory by a number of executions, attended with every circumſtance of barbarous ſeverity. James's intentions of ruling with abſolute power, and of re-eſtabliſhing Popery, ſoon became manifeſt. One of his firſt acts was ſending an embaſſy to Rome, and in return the Pope's nuncio made a public entry into London with all the pomp and formality of Romiſh ſuperſtition. This was followed by a declaration, that all reſtraints were taken from Popery, and ſeven of the biſhops refuſing to have it read in their churches, were committed to the Tower. They were then brought to trial before a jury for diſobeying the king's orders. They were however acquitted, and the joy of the people was exceſſive. The king now reſolved to try the ſentiments of the military. For this purpoſe he had a favorite regiment drawn out, and all who diſliked the declaration were ordered to lay down their arms: but

what was his aſtoniſhment when every one did ſo, except two officers and a few Catholic ſoldiers. Notwithſtanding all this, by the advice of his confeſſor Peters, who was a Jeſuit, he perſiſted in his views, and there was ſoon but one wiſh amongſt the Proteſtants of England. That was, that the crown ſhould be transferred to William, prince of Orange, and Mary his wife, the daughter of James, but who had been educated by her uncle Charles in the Proteſtant religion.

William at length landed in Torbay, with about 13,000 men. Many perſons of conſequence immediately joined his ſtandard, and every day encreaſed the defection from James, till at length he was even abandoned by Anne, his favorite child, and her huſband, the prince of Denmark. This drove him to deſpair, and ſending off his queen to France he prepared to follow her. It was preciſely what William wiſhed, and his eſcape, together with that of his natural ſon, the duke of Berwick, was therefore connived at. The lords and commons being now aſſembled, ſettled the prerogatives that ſhould in future belong to the crown, and the terms on which

William was to aſcend the throne. The conſequence was a conſtitution that gave to the king powers ſufficient for every wholeſome purpoſe, and to the people rational liberty. Indeed it is admitted by the beſt writers on government that, that of king, lords and commons, as fixed by the revolution of 1688, is ſuperior to any other form that has yet appeared in the world; and the freedom and proſperity that followed it, is the beſt proof of the truth of the aſſertion.

William being thus firmly ſeated in the throne of England, wiſely agreed to aboliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, and to eſtabliſh the Preſbyterian ſect, which had long been the ardent deſire of that nation. He alſo ingratiated himſelf with the Engliſh ſectaries, by giving them every toleration in his power and he then turned his thoughts towards Ireland, where alone his title was controverted.

The great body of the Iriſh being Roman Catholics, were the decided friends of James, who with the aſſiſtance of France, had landed in that kingdom. The Proteſtants had been for the moſt part diſarmed by Tyrconnel, James's lord lieu-

tenant: but a few places of ſtrength had held out, one of which was Derry, whoſe inhabitants peculiarly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. At length an Engliſh army, commanded by the Duke of Schomberg relieved that city; and William not very long after, landed at Carrickfergus. He immediately put himſelf at the head of his forces, and marched againſt his competitor who had taken poſt on the banks of the Boyne, in the neighbourhood of Drogheda. Here William gained a deciſive victory, Schomberg, who was upwards of eighty falling in the action. James who had been merely a ſpectator, fled, as ſoon as his forces gave way, and returned to France. His friends however fought another battle at Aughrim, where they were again defeated; and the remnant threw themſelves into the city of Limerick. There a capitulation followed, by which William was acknowledged on the terms that the Catholics ſhould be put, on the ſame footing they were during the reign of Charles II.: and alſo that ſuch as choſe it,

ſhould have the liberty of withdrawing to France.

A laſt effort was made by the depoſed monarch, with the aid of Lewis XIV. A French fleet conſiſting of 63 ſhips of the line, and 300 tranſports, with troops on board, aſſembled at La Hogue, under the command of admiral Tourville. But a far ſuperior Britiſh fleet conſiſting of 99 line of battle ſhips under admiral Ruſſel defeated it, fifteen of the French line being deſtroyed. James now ſubmitted to his fate, and obtaining a liberal ſupport from Lewis, he reſided in France till his death, which happened in the year 1700.

William had ſome differences with the Engliſh parliament, on the ſubject of continental wars, to which it was adverſe, and alſo as to a few laws that he thought inimical to the regal power. They however obtained from him a bill making parliaments triennial, and alſo one that was very favorable to liberty. The latter enacted that every perſon accuſed of high treaſon, ſhould receive a copy of the indictment, and

the names of thoſe out of whom the jury was to be ſtruck, a certain time before the trial was to take place, and no perſon could be condemned for that offence on the teſtimony of leſs than two credible witneſſes. In return they granted him ſuch ſums of money as his continental affairs demanded.

After the treaty of Ryſwick, the nation being no longer at war, the houſe of commons voted that only 7000 men, and thoſe too of Britiſh ſubjects, ſhould remain embodied. This was received at firſt with indignation by William, who delighted in military affairs, but he thought proper to yield to the wiſhes of parliament. He was however meditating new deſigns on the continent, when he died, partly in conſequence of breaking his collar bone by a fall from his horſe; and partly from his conſtitution being worn out by fatigue. William was not a man of pleaſing manners; but he was poſſeſſed of great parts, and the moſt undaunted courage; added to which he was, what was ſtill more praiſe worthy, a religious, virtuous prince; and every thinking

Engliſhman muſt venerate his memory. Mary who had died before him, had been the worthy partner of his heart, as well as of the throne. Beautiful in her perſon and amiable in her manners, ſhe loved, and was beloved: and they ſet a bright example of conjugal fidelity. Their court was therefore always at leaſt exteriorly correct; and I believe ſuperior in virtue, to any then in the world.

Mary having left no iſſue, the crown now deſcended to queen Anne, the wife of the prince of Denmark. She embraced the politics of her predeceſſor, entering into an alliance with the Dutch, and joining in the war againſt France. The ſucceſs of her arms under the duke of Marlborough has fallen in elſewhere, ſuffice it to add, that the duke was received with enthuſiaſm in England after the victory of Blenheim, where he had commanded in chief: and that he was rewarded by parliament with a princely eſtate, and a magnificent palace. Whilſt Marlborough was thus gaining glory and profit, the earl of Peterborough highly diſtinguiſhed himſelf in Spain. Gibraltar at this time, alſo fell into the

hands of the Engliſh; and though a ſea engagement which now took place between France and England was rather a drawn battle, the French in fact gave up from thenceforth all pretenſions to the ſovereignty of the ocean.

There were now two factions in England, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Whig and Tory. The firſt being ſuppoſed to be the friends of freedom, and the latter rather inclined to arbitrary power. The duke of Marlborough, and the earl of Godolphin, who had the chief direction of every thing, were of the Whig party, and owed their elevation chiefly to the influence of the ducheſs of Marlborough over queen Anne. But the ducheſs thinking herſelf too ſecure of that princeſs's affection, at length acted in a manner that highly diſguſted her miſtreſs. This threw the latter into the confidence of a miſtreſs Maſham who was of the Tory faction: and by ſubſequent intrigues Marlborough and Godolphin with all the heads of their party, were diſmiſſed. They were ſucceeded by two very able men, Robert Harley, and Henry St. John, the firſt being created earl of Oxford,

and the latter viſcount Bolingbroke. They reprobated the continental war, and it was owing chiefly to their exertions that the peace of Utrecht was concluded. But the new miniſtry did not draw together, and the earl of Oxford having reſigned, the queen died before a new cabinet could be arranged. This happened in 1714, and George I. was immediately proclaimed.

During the reign of Anne, a union took place between England and Scotland, and both have been ſince known by the name of Great Britain. The terms were a limitation as to taxation; and that they ſhould ſend to the Britiſh parliament ſixteen peers, and forty five commoners: and in future all alterations as to Scotland were to be enacted by that aſſembly, as well as what related to England.

George's claim to the crown was founded on an act of parliament made in the reign of William, ſettling it on the houſe of Hanover who were deſcended from James the firſt, by his grand daughter Sophia. The Tory party being conſidered favorable to the male line of the houſe

of Stewart, who by this act were excluded, the king threw himſelf into the arms of the Whigs: and a new parliament being called, a great majority of the houſe of commons were of that party. By it, lord Oxford was impeached and impriſoned, and Bolingbroke and the duke of Ormond ſaved themſelves by flight.

A rebellion now broke out in Scotland in favor of James the ſon of James II. But it was put down without much difficulty; and beſides thoſe who periſhed in the field, numbers were executed as traitors, amongſt whom were the earl of Derwentwater, and viſcount Kenmuir. The earl of Mar who was the chief leader on the part of the rebels, and ſeveral others of conſequence, eſcaped to the continent.

George the firſt was thus firmly ſeated on the throne of Great Britain, before the end of the year 1715, at which period I think that nation was at its ſummit in point of real proſperity and happineſs. The life and liberty of the ſubject, was ſecured by laws that precluded the

impriſonment of any man, without aſſigning the cauſe, and which ſecured a ſpeedy trial by twelve men indifferently choſen, or if of the nobility, by his peers. In caſes of property, the inveſtigation was to be made before competent judges in open courts, and where facts were to be aſcertained, it was alſo by juries. No tax could be levied but by the conſent of both houſes of parliament, one of which was elected by the people. Add to this, that every man was at liberty to think for himſelf in matters of religion, without fear of puniſhment: and that which was eſtabliſhed, was certainly free from any great objection. In commerce England was now amongſt the foremoſt, the Dutch alone having any right to claim a ſuperiority. Her colonies were numerous and flouriſhing, particularly in North America, where ſhe had the provinces of Virginia, New Britain, Nova Scotia, New England, New York, New Jerſey, Penſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and the two Carolina's. In the Eaſt and Weſt Indies ſhe had alſo conſiderable poſſeſſions: and their

fleet was now ſuperior to every other in the world.

A royal ſociety had been incorporated under Charles II. for the advancement of ſcience, and from that and other encouragements, all the uſeful and ornamental arts had obtained conſiderable perfection. Literature alſo flouriſhed in a high degree both in poetry and proſe, and perhaps the Engliſh language had then attained its ſtandard of perfection. The beſt and ſoundeſt philoſophers had alſo appeared, and that infidelity the bane of after-times, was almoſt unknown. As I ſhall again touch on the comparative ſituation of Great Britain with that of other nations, in the year 1715, I ſhall here put an end to this letter.

FOURTEENTH LETTER.

IN treating of Italy, I ſhall omit what has fallen in with the hiſtory of Spain, France, and the German empire. And as to the variety of internal wars in which the Italian ſtates were as uſual embroiled, all that is neceſſary will fall in with my account of the Popes.

Naples in 1453, had Alphonſo for its king, and on his death in 1458, Pope Pius II. who claimed to be lord paramount, gave the inveſtiture to Ferdinand the baſtard ſon of Alphonſo, in preference to the next legitimate heir of the houſe of Anjou. Alphonſo the ſon of Ferdinand alſo received the inveſtiture, but Charles VIII. of France who claimed Naples in right of the houſe of Anjou, for a time made himſelf maſter of that kingdom, as you have before ſeen. On his abandoning it, Ferdinand the ſon of the laſt Alphonſo regained it, and on his death in 1496 his uncle Frederick ſucceeded. This prince was afterwards obliged to yield to the ſuperior forces

of the French and Spaniſh monarchs, and accepting a penſion, he retired to France where he died. The Spaniards then expelled the French, and both Naples and Sicily which had before fallen into their hands, continued annexed to the crown of Spain, till the peace of Utrecht, when the latter was given to the duke of Savoy: and Naples to the houſe of Auſtria.

Savoy and Piedmont continued under its duke the title of king of Sardinia not being given to him till 1718. He was one of the moſt powerful of the Italian princes, being ſtiled from his ſituation, the Janus of Italy. By the treaty of Utrecht, beſides its being ſtipulated that Sicily ſhould be his, the county of Nice was ſecured to him, and the vallies of Pragelas, Onex, Sezane, Bardonache, and Chatheau-Dauphin with the forts of Exiles and Finiſtrells were alſo ceded.

Geneva and its territory had once been ſubject to the dukes of Savoy; but in the wars between Charles V. and Francis the firſt, they threw off the yoke, and were able to maintain their independence.

The duchy of Milan, the cauſe of ſuch a multitude of wars, was one of the fineſt and moſt populous countries in Italy. You have ſeen it ſometimes in the hands of the French, ſometimes in that of the Spaniards, and ſometimes belonging to the emperors. At length, by the treaty of Utrecht, it was veſted in the houſe of Auſtria. Originally the Milaneſe belonged to the Viſconti, then to the Galeazzos, and then to the Sforzas. It had always been conſidered a fief of the German emperors, and it was on failure of male iſſue of the laſt duke, that the emperor Charles V. veſted it in his ſon Philip, and his heirs.

Tuſcany, which was a republic at the beginning of this æra, had Coſmo de Medicis at the head of its affairs. He had acquired immenſe riches by his traffic in the Eaſtern commodities, the Portugueſe not having then diſcovered the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope, Theſe treaſures were expended in the revival of the arts, and in the moſt uſeful improvements: and when he died, in 1464, his

fellow-citizens inſcribed upon his tomb, that he was the father of the people, and the deliverer of his country. Lorenzo, the grandſon of Coſmo, was alſo a man of uncommon talents, and directed the councils of the republic. He loved peace, and ſtudied all its arts, never engaging his country in war when it was poſſible to avoid it, and he obtained the appellation of the Great, and the Father of Learning.

The Medicis family continued in high reputation; and at length one of them, likewiſe named Coſmo, and who was alſo peculiarly diſtinguiſhed for his patroniſing the arts, was made grand duke of Tuſcany, in 1570: which title continued in that family till after my preſent æra. This ſtate, under the influence of the Medicis, became the moſt poliſhed and celebrated of any country in Europe; and in its chief city of Florence, amongſt other exquiſite pieces of workmanſhip, was a ſtatue, called the Venus de Medici, ſuppoſed to be the firſt piece of ſculpture in the world. It was made by an Athenian, named Cleomenes, the ſon of Apol-

lodorus, long before the Chriſtian æra. Though Italy, in the year 1715, had ceaſed to be ſuperior to the reſt of Europe, yet Tuſcany ſtill held the firſt place there in arts and elegance; but it was then inferior in real knowledge to France and England.

In 1453, Genoa was a very conſiderable republic, or rather an ariſtocracy: and it was for a time amongſt the firſt maritime powers. But the diſcovery of going to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope had greatly reduced her wealth and influence. Latterly all power was confined to the nobility, who every two years elected a chief magiſtrate called a Doge, and who could not be re-elected till five years had intervened. It was ſometimes in the hands of the French, and ſometimes independent, as will fall in elſewhere.

The duchy of Mantua continued in the family of Gonzaga, who held it as a fief to the empire.

The duchy of Parma had been annexed to the holy ſee in 1545, and Pope Paul III. after-

wards thought proper to give it to his natural ſon, with the title of duke, and it ſtill continued in the houſe of Farneſe.

Venice, in the beginning of my preſent æra, was the firſt commercial nation in the world, and had acquired more wealth than any other European ſtate, beſides being miſtreſs of the firſt naval power. Its territory extended from the lake Como to the middle of Dalmatia, and it was poſſeſſed of the iſlands of Cyprus and Candia, and afterwards of the Morea. The principal wars in which it was engaged has fallen in, or will fall in elſewhere; but after the Portugueſe diſcoveries it declined, and in the year 1715, when it loſt the Morea, it had ceaſed to be diſtinguiſhed. The government of Venice, which had been at firſt democratic, long before the commencement of this æra became entirely ariſtocratic, all offices and all deliberation being confined to an hereditary nobility. Theſe elected a chief magiſtrate, called a Doge, by ballot. But he was in fact of little conſequence, there being a grand council that he was obliged

to obey in all material matters. Beſides the doge and council, there was a tribunal of three, called the ſtate inquiſitors, who had the power of life and death at their diſcretion, over every perſon of every rank; but they continued in office only one year. All religions not Chriſtian were tolerated in Venice; but of the latter, the Catholic alone was permitted. The armies of Venice were always foreigners, as were alſo their generals, the nobles not chooſing to truſt their own people.

The duchy of Modena was in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Eſte, who held it as a fief of the empire.

Beſides theſe ſtates, and that of the church, there were the ſmall duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, and the little republics of Lucca and St. Marino; and of the iſlands adjacent to Italy, Malta only is worthy of obſervation.

When the Turks drove the knights of St. John out of Rhodes, this iſland was given to them by the emperor Charles V. in 1530, and they then took the name of Knights of Malta. They were however to hold it under the kings

of Spain, and to ſend a falcon yearly as an acknowledgment. Theſe knights were under the government of a grand maſter, and none could be admitted that were not deſcended from families reckoned genteel for ſix generations. They were partly a military, and partly a monaſtic order, acknowledging the Pope, and taking the vows of celibacy and chaſtity. This iſland, which has the fineſt harbour in the Mediterranean, was ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it was able to bid defiance to all the force of the Turks: and the knights carried on a perpetual war with the piratical ſtates of Africa: but notwithſtanding their vows, they were openly addicted to wine and women. Before I proceed to the papacy, I ſhall only obſerve that thoſe countries of Italy which I have not ſpecified to be republics or ariſtocracies, were all under abſolute governments; and ſo was Tuſcany at the cloſe of this æra.

Pope Nicholas V. who was a great encourager of learning and learned men, died in 1455, leaving behind him a character worthy of a purer form of worſhip than that which he had

been at the head of. His ſucceſſor Calixtus III. was more attentive to military than either civil or eccleſiaſtical affairs, and beſides aſſiſting with his own levies againſt the Turks, he by his ambaſſadors and preſents prevailed on the king of Perſia and the chan of the Tartars, to attack them in the Eaſt. On the death of Alphonſo king of Naples, without male iſſue, he laid claim to it as a fief to the holy ſee, wiſhing to beſtow it on his nephew, but his death, in 1458, prevented the conteſt that was likely to enſue.

Pius II. before he was raiſed to the pontificate, had on many occaſions declared, that the opinion of a general council was ſuperior to that of the Pope: but he now iſſued a bull aſſerting the reverſe. He in vain endeavoured to get the Chriſtian princes to unite againſt the Turks, but he ſhewed his own zeal by fitting out a fleet, on board of which he was about to embark to join the Venetians, when he died.

Paul II. who ſucceeded Pius, had numbers put to the rack for an imaginary conſpiracy againſt him, ſome of whom died of the operation. His

pontificate was remarkably venal, every place of conſequence being ſold: and to ſatisfy his avarice he ordered, that the Jubilees in future ſhould be every 25 years, by which means he had the benefit of one of them.

Having a quarrel with Podiebrad king of Bohemia, he transferred his crown to the king of Hungary, at the ſame time preaching a cruſade to put him in poſſeſſion of it; but the latter did not benefit by the donation.

In 1471, Sixtus IV. was choſen; and under pretence of war with the Turks, he, by means of his delegates throughout Chriſtendom, conſiderably enriched himſelf. One of his great objects was the reduction of ſome of his own feudatories, who claimed the right of ſovereign power in their reſpective principalities; and Ferdinand king of Naples ſupported him in the attempt. On the other hand Lawrence and Julian de Medicis, who were the chief men in Tuſcany, joined his vaſſals, he having offended Julian by refuſing him a cardinal's hat; but Francis de Pazzi, another powerful Tuſcan, took part with

his Holineſs, and it was agreed that the two de Medicis's ſhould be aſſaſſinated. Julian accordingly fell, but Lawrence eſcaping, ſeveral of thoſe concerned in the murder were executed, and ſome of them being eccleſiaſtics, the Pope thereupon excommunicated Lawrence, and put Florence under an interdict. Lewis XI. king of France, however, brought about a peace, and Sixtus, ſucceeding as to his own ſubjects, highly encreaſed the papal revenues. About this time the Turks took Otranto in Italy; but in 1481, which was the year after, they were forced to abandon it.

Sixtus, in conjunction with the Venetians and Genoeſe, was now engaged in a war againſt the Florentines, the Milaneſe, the duke of Ferrara, and the king of Naples, which had no conſequences. The peace that followed was ſoon broken by means of the Pope, who now joined the king of Naples, the Florentines, and Lewis Sforza of Milan, againſt the Venetians. The latter had the worſt of it; but Sixtus's allies, not chooſing to aggrandize him, made a ſe-

parate peace with them; which vexed him ſo much, that it brought on a violent fit of the gout, in which he expired. It was in his pontificate that the Vatican Library was founded.

Innocent VIII. who had led a very profligate life, and who had a number of baſtards, was the next Pope. He had ſome diſputes with Ferdinand king of Naples, as to the tribute, but they were afterwards reconciled. Zizim, the brother of Bajazet emperor of the Turks, having fled from the latter, took ſhelter with the knights of Rhodes, who ſent him to one of their commanderies in France, and this Pope ſolicited and obtained the poſſeſſion of his perſon, from Charles VIII. alledging it might be made inſtrumental to the ſafety of Italy. Bajazet on learning this, negotiated with the Pope, and by means of a large ſum of money, and the head of a ſpear which it was alledged had pierced Chriſt, he procured the impriſonment of his brother.

On the death of Innocent, the cardinals being bribed, elected Borgia a native of Spain, who took the name of Alexander VI. On

Charles VIII. of France entering Italy, this Pope, who had declared for Alphonſo king of Naples, ſolicited the aid of Bajazet, which was promiſed by the latter, on condition that his brother ſhould be put to death. Charles however, who ſoon after made terms with the Pope, inſiſted on having the poſſeſſion of Zizim, he having intercepted Bajazet's letters. This was complied with, but not before Zizim got poiſon, of which he afterwards died: and the price that Alexander received for this murder, was ſaid to be 300,000 ducats.

Charles got poſſeſſion of Naples, as you have before ſeen. But a league formed by the Pope and ſome other Italian princes, together with Ferdinand king of Spain, who had poſſeſſion of Sicily, ſoon obliged him to abandon it.

Alexander now demanded a daughter of Frederick king of Naples for his ſecond ſon Cæſar, whom he had made a cardinal. This being refuſed, the Pope immediately entered into an alliance with Lewis XII. of France, who had deſigns not only on Naples, but on the duchy of

Milan, then in the hands of Lewis Sforza, who had uſurped that government on the death of the laſt of the male line of the Viſconti. The terms were, that the Pope ſhould aſſiſt him againſt thoſe ſtates—ſhould alſo annul his marriage with his then queen; and give him leave to marry his ſiſter-in-law, Anne of Brittany; and to make the archbiſhop of Rouen a cardinal. In return, Cæſar Borgia was to give up his cardinal's hat; to obtain in marriage a princeſs of Navarre, with a conſiderable property; and the title of duke of Valence in France; and Lewis was alſo to aſſiſt in conquering ſome places in Italy, claimed by the Pope. The duchy of Milan was now ſoon reduced by Lewis. Genoa alſo fell into his hands, and his allies the Venetians poſſeſſed themſelves of Cremona. Ferdinand king of Spain, who likewiſe claimed Naples, now agreed to divide it with Lewis, and the former, by means of Gonſalvo called the Great Captain, who had treacherouſly entered Naples as a friend, and who never regarded honor or good faith, ſoon expelled Frederick.

The Pope prior to this treaty, had erected Benevento into a duchy, and given it to his eldeſt ſon Lewis, whom the king of Spain had before created a duke. This, and a lady's preferring the duke to Cæſar, induced the latter to diſpatch his brother by ſome of thoſe aſſaſſins whom he kept in conſtant pay. He then made himſelf maſter of a part of Tuſcany, and the territories of ſome of the great vaſſals of the church. This induced a league againſt him, but he got rid of it, chiefly by the means of aſſaſſination.

Alexander at length died of poiſon prepared for others by his ſon Cæſar, it having been common thus to remove ſuch as ſtood in the way of the avarice or ambition of this deteſtable family: and ſeveral rich cardinals had been cut off, as their treaſures of right belonged to the Pope. Beſides practiſing the moſt unnatural luſts, Alexander was ſuppoſed to be connected with his own daughter, as was alſo his two eldeſt ſons. In ſhort, there does not ſeem to have been a crime which was not practiſed by him and his illegitimate offspring.

During the vacancy that now followed in the chair of St. Peter, a multitude of commotions took place; and Cæſar being ill of the poiſon, a little of which he had alſo taken by miſtake, all the places he had poſſeſſed himſelf of, threw off his yoke, Romagna alone excepted.

Pius III. who was now elected, lived only 26 days. During his ſhort reign, Rome was diſturbed by a battle between Cæſar and the family of the Orſini, whom he had plundered in the life-time of his father.

The next Pope was Julius II.; and Cæſar's troops being now diſperſed, the Venetians attacked Romagna. The Pope alſo claimed that diſtrict; and on Cæſar's refuſing to give up ſome places that remained faithful to him, Julius had him arreſted. Cæſar however eſcaped to Naples; but Gonſalvo the Great Captain, who commanded there, ſent him to his maſter the king of Spain, by whom he was thrown into priſon. He again contrived to ſet himſelf free, and he then took ſhelter with his brother-in-law John king of Navarre, where he loſt his life in a

ſkirmiſh with ſome of that prince's ſubjects, who had rebelled againſt him.

Bologna and Perugia had endeavoured at independence, but being part of the territories claimed by the church, Julius brought them to ſubjection. Much about this time Genoa and Milan revolted from France, but the former was in a ſhort time re-conquered.

Julius in 1508 procured the league of Cambray againſt the Venetians. This was compoſed of the Pope, the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, and moſt of the Italian princes. Julius began with excommunicating them, but diſregarding it they appealed to a general council. Unable to withſtand the forces of the confederates, they were however obliged to abandon every thing on the continent, and to retire within their city and iſlands: and had the confederates purſued their victories, Venice muſt have been annihilated. But it was not the Pope's intereſt that they ſhould be ſo, and he made peace with them in 1510, on the following terms: "that

they ſhould not diſpoſe of benefices or eccleſiaſtical dignities, or oppoſe any proviſions made by the court of Rome concerning them. That they ſhould not obſtruct the trials of cauſes relating to benefices, or other eccleſiaſtical matters. That they ſhould lay no impoſts on the goods of the church, nor on places exempt from the ſecular juriſdiction. That they ſhould withdraw their appeal to a general council, and renounce all right to the towns then poſſeſſed by the church, no matter how acquired. That the ſubjects of the church ſhould have a free navigation in the Adriatic ſea; and that their ſhips ſhould not be ſearched, nor be obliged to pay any duty, whether their cargoes belonged to them or other nations. That all conventions with the ſubjects of the church, to the prejudice of the eccleſiaſtical immunity, ſhould be annulled. That they ſhould afford no ſhelter in their dominions to any dukes, barons, or other vaſſals of the church who ſhould be declared rebels, or enemies to the apoſtolic ſee: and that they ſhould repair all the loſſes the church had ſuſtained, by their means, during the courſe of the war, and reſtore to the eccle-

ſiaſtics the ſums they had raiſed upon their eſtates." The Pope having got by this treaty, all the territories he had claimed prior to the war, with other advantages; not only abſolved them, but took them under his protection, without even conſulting his allies: and being now extremely jealous of the power of France in Italy, he meditated a war with Lewis XII. its then king.

The duke of Ferrara, though holding under the Pope, as his lord paramount was in the French intereſt. Julius therefore ſolemnly excommunicated Alphonſo d'Eſte who was then poſſeſſed of that duchy, and hoſtilities were the conſequence. The Venetians took part in this conteſt with his Holineſs, and France and the emperor, gave their aid to the duke. The latter party having the beſt of it, now prevailed on ſome cardinals to call a general council at Piſa, for the purpoſe, among other things of enquiring into Julius's conduct. In return, he ſummoned one to meet at Rome, at the ſame time diſſolving the other. He then pretended to negotiate with France, whilſt he was forming a new league a-

gainſt it with the Venetians, and the kings of Spain and England.

The council of Piſa opened the 1ſt September 1511, and it being then ſubject to Florence, Julius laid both cities under an interdict, at the ſame time excommunicating all who ſhould attend it: but the Florentines appealed to a general council; and obliged their eccleſiaſtics to perform the offices of religion as uſual. The people of Piſa however, were ſo diſpleaſed at the interdict which the council had occaſioned, that they inſulted its members, who therefore thought proper to adjourn to Milan.

Freſh hoſtilities now commenced, and the French under the command of Gaſton de Foix, duke of Nemours, who was Lewis's nephew, were at firſt victorious. The duke however fell in battle, and the forces of the Pope and of Venice, being joined by not leſs than 18,000 Swiſs, they made an attack on the duchy of Milan. The reverſe of fortune to the French was immediate and extreme. The Milaneſe was reconquered, and Sforza who had loſt it, reinſtated in the dukedom. All the places taken from the

Pope were regained: and the Genoeſe throwing off the yoke, reaſſumed their independence. This happened in 1512, and Julius then complimented the Swiſs with the title of Defenders of the Holy See.

The council that had removed to Milan during this conteſt, had pronounced Julius a diſturber of the peace, a bloodthirſty hardened tyrant, &c. &c. and at the ſame time depoſed him. On the other hand he excommunicated the French king and all who adhered to him, giving his dominions to whoever would take them. The death of Julius, however ſoon after put an end to the conteſt.

Julius was ſucceeded in 1513, by John Cardinal de Medicis, the ſon of Lawrence de Medicis, who had governed Florence with great reputation, and who had been ſtiled the Father of the Muſes. He took the name of Leo X. and was inſtalled with a grandeur ſurpaſſing all who had preceded him. He very ſoon made terms with Lewis king of France, and he alſo reſtored the cardinals who had compoſed the council of Piſa to favor, on their acknowledging the council

called at Rome by Julius, and which met at the church of St. John of Lateran.

On the acceſſion of Francis I. to the throne of France, Leo had entered into a confederacy againſt him, with the emperor Charles V. and the Swiſs: but when Francis gained the victory at Marignan, the Pope changed ſides, and what has been ſince called the Concordat, was ſoon after ſettled between them. By it, it was agreed, that the Pragmatic Sanction ſhould be aboliſhed in Francis's dominions. That the chapters of the cathedral and Metropolitan churches, ſhould not thenceforth elect their own biſhops, but that the king ſhould nominate fit perſons, on whom the Pope ſhould confer that dignity. That the Pope ſhould thenceforth grant no expectative graces, nor reſervations, general or ſpecial. That the ordinaries ſhould be obliged to confer on the graduates of the univerſities, ſuch benefices as ſhould be vacant in four months of the year to be ſpecified, but ſhould be at liberty to diſpoſe of thoſe vacant in the other eight months, to whom they pleaſed. That every Pope might once in his pontificate, oblige every

collator, having from ten to fifty benefices in his gift, to confer one as his Holineſs ſhould direct; and if the benefices exceeded fifty, then two were to be at his diſpoſal. That the Annates ſhould be reſtored and paid according to the true value, and not according to the ancient rates which were much below it. This new agreement being eſſentially different from the Pragmatic Sanction, was highly diſapproved of in France. It was however at laſt regiſtered in 1527, by the parliament of Paris, and with a few alterations, for a long time continued to be acknowledged.

Francis I. beſides, acceding to the Conçordat, conſented, that the duke of Urbina, to whom he had promiſed protection, ſhould be depoſed, and the Pope's nephew, Lawrence de Medicis, placed in his ſtead; though the family of Medicis had been under great obligations to that unfortunate prince.

Leo had by his extravagance, greatly impoveriſhed the coffers of the Romiſh See, and wiſhing not only for money to pay for his pleaſures, but alſo to carry on the building of St. Peter's

church, which had been began by his immediate predeceſſor, he applied his thoughts to the encreaſing of his revenue. The ſituation of the Papacy was at this time curious, intereſting, and deteſtable. A table of crimes, with the price of abſolution for each, was actually publiſhed, or fixed up in the Roman chancery. A ſufficient ſpecimen of it are the following articles: A deacon guilty of murder, might be abſolved for 20 crowns. A biſhop or abbot might aſſaſſinate for 300 livres. An eccleſiaſtic might commit uncleanneſs, with the moſt aggravating circumſtances, for the ſame ſum.

This table gave the hint to Leo, of raiſing what he wanted by indulgences for life, as I have mentioned in my account of Germany. I ſhall here give you the form of one of them.

May our Lord Jeſus Chriſt have mercy upon thee and abſolve thee, by the merits of his holy paſſion. And I (the perſon who ſold them) by his authority, that of his bleſſed apoſtles, Peter, and Paul, and of the moſt holy Pope, granted and committed to me in theſe parts, do abſolve thee, firſt, from all eccleſiaſtical cenſures, in

whatever manner they have been incurred, and then from all thy ſins, tranſgreſſions and exceſſes, how enormous ſoever they may be; even from ſuch as were reſerved for the cognizance of the Holy See: and as far as the keys of the holy church extend, I remit to you all the puniſhment which you deſerve in purgatory on their account. And I reſtore you to the holy ſacraments of the church, to the unity of the faithful, and to that innocence and purity, which you poſſeſſed at baptiſm: ſo that when you die, the gates of puniſhment ſhall be ſhut, and the gates of the paradiſe of delight, ſhall be opened. And if you ſhall not die at preſent, this grace ſhall remain in full force when you are at the point of death. In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghoſt. I have before obſerved to you, how Luther came to attack theſe indulgences. At firſt Leo treated it with contempt, but when he found the ſupport that was given him, he firſt ſummonſed him to Rome, and Luther refuſing to attend, and at the ſame time claiming a right to be heard in Germany, Leo ſent cardinal Cajetan, to inquire into his doctrines.

Cajetan held his court at Augſburgh; but he failed in convincing Luther, and Leo by a brief of this year declared, that the ſovereign pontiff, as ſucceſſor of St. Peter, and Chriſt's vicar on earth, was veſted with power to remit all ſins, and all puniſhments due to them; all ſins by the ſacrament of penance; and all puniſhments by means of indulgences. But he could neither ſilence or puniſh Luther, whoſe doctrines every day gained ground, in defiance of all the efforts of the Pope and the emperor.

Towards the cloſe of Leo's pontificate, he was detached from the intereſt of Francis I. by the emperor Charles: and in return, after the French were driven out of Italy, the cities of Parma and Piacenza were added to the poſſeſſions of the church, which he did not long ſurvive. Leo was certainly a very magnificent prince, and a great encourager of literature and the arts: but he indulged in the moſt vicious pleaſures, and ſeems to have been a total ſtranger to the pure principles of Chriſtianity.

Adrian VI. who had been preceptor to the

emperor Charles V. was now raiſed through that prince's influence to the chair of St. Peter. He uſed his utmoſt endeavours to ſtop the progreſs of the reformation, and ſent his nuncio to the German diet held at Nuremberg for that purpoſe. He at the ſame time acknowledged, that many groſs abuſes exiſted in the church, and declared he was ready to redreſs them. The princes of the empire thereupon propoſed a general council for that purpoſe, and drew up a liſt of 100 grievances, that required to be removed: but Adrian died before any thing effectual could take place. During the pontificate of Adrian, Francis I. of France, had ſent admiral Bonnivet into Italy, but he was no match for Bourbon, and the marquis de Peſcara, who commanded for the emperor: and in a defeat he ſuſtained, the Chevalier Bayard loſt his life. This French man had juſtly obtained the appellation of the Knight without Fear, and without Reproach. When dying, Bourbon who had gained the victory, came up where he lay, and expreſſed his pity for him.. Pity not me, exclaimed Bayard, who dies for my country;

but pity him who fights againſt his king, his country and his oath.

In 1523, Clement VII. became Pope. Clement had reſolved on a neutral conduct, but on Francis I. entering Italy with a powerful army, he concluded a treaty with him. Soon after this, Francis loſt the battle of Pavia; and the Pope being fearful that the emperor would ſubdue Italy, then formed a league with the French, the Venetians, the Florentines, the duke of Milan, and the Swiſs, to prevent it. This was called the Holy League, and Henry VIII. of England, was afterwards declared its protector.

The Colonna's, a powerful family in the dominions of the church, but friends to the emperor, now ſurpriſed Rome, and the Pope took ſhelter in the caſtle of St. Angelo. He there concluded a truce, by which he engaged to withdraw his forces from the confederacy for four months, and he was alſo to forgive the Colonna's and their party. But inſtead of doing ſo he almoſt inſtantly broke the treaty, and deſtroyed their poſſeſſions with fire and ſword. Not long after this, the duke of Bourbon, at the head of

an Imperial army, marched againſt Rome. He loſt his life on the occaſion: but the city and Pope falling into the hands of his army, the moſt enormous outrages were committed. After being kept a priſoner for a conſiderable time, his Holineſs was at length releaſed by order of the emperor on the following terms: That he ſhould take no part in the war between the emperor and the French. That he ſhould give the emperor a tenth of all his eccleſiaſtical revenues, beſides paying a large ſum of money at ſtated times. that certain cities ſhould be given up, and that h ſhould ceaſe to reſide at Rome, and his two nephews to be hoſtages for his performance of theſe conditions.

When Clement left Rome he took ſhelter at Orvieto, and he was there ſolicited by the kings of France and England to join in a new confederacy againſt the emperor. He however preferred an alliance with the latter, which was concluded in 1529. The terms were that Alexander de Medicis, the Pope's nephew, and who had been driven out of Florence, ſhould be reſtored, and a natural daughter of Charles V. was to be given

him in marriage, with a portion of 20,000 ducats per annum. Certain places were alſo to be ſecured to the Pope: and in return, Clement was to give Charles the inveſtiture of Naples, and to demand no other tribute than a white horſe annually. The emperor was likewiſe to have the nomination to certain eccleſiaſtical preferments in that kingdom. They were not in future to act againſt each other in the affairs of Italy. And the emperor and his brother Ferdinand, now king of Hungary, were to join the Pope in cruſhing the Proteſtants, and if neceſſary, to have recourſe to arms. This treaty was ſigned by the ambaſſadors of each, on the 29th day of June 1529, at Barcelona: ſoon after which, the emperor and Pope had a perſonal conference, and the latter performed the ceremony of giving the former the Imperial crown.

Florence ſtood a ſiege of eleven months, but at length ſubmitted to the Imperialiſts; and the republic was put an end to: Alexander being veſted with the ſovereign power as its duke, which title was declared hereditary in the family.

But notwithſtanding all perſons were to be ſpared, by the terms of the capitulation, the Pope had ſix of the principal enemies of his houſe beheaded. In the mean time the reformation continued to gain ground in Germany, and Clement evaded calling that general council, which had been ſo often demanded; and which was allowed to be neceſſary. The laſt material act of this Pontiff, was his concluding a marriage between his niece Catherine de Medicis, and Henry duke of Orleans, the ſecond ſon of Francis I. of France.

The next Pope, Paul III. in the year 1538, went through all the formalities of excommunicating Henry VIII. of England, putting an interdict on the kingdom, and abſolving his ſubjects from their allegiance. He alſo took an active part in the German diets againſt the Proteſtants, and he at length called a general council, which opened at Trent in the year 1545. The Popes legates preſided, and in fact, the aſſembly was entirely directed by him; the majority of biſhops who attended, being Italians. The Pro-

teſtants therefore objected to it, as incompetent to decide on the matters in controverſy, and the emperor and Pope now entered into an agreement to cruſh them by force. The Pope accordingly, aided with both men and money, and in the hiſtory of Germany you have already ſeen the conſequences.

As ſoon as Paul found Charles ſucceſsful, he withdrew his forces and pecuniary aid, and entered into an alliance with Henry II. of France. This he did from an apprehenſion that the emperor would become too powerful in Italy. Paul had taken great pains to aggrandize his family, and his natural ſon Pier-Luigi Farneſe was made duke of Parma and Piacenza, who was however afterwards aſſaſſinated, having rendered himſelf odious by his bad government. But the moſt memorable event of this pontificate was the founding of the order of the Jeſuits, by Ignatius of Loyola, a Spaniard. Beſides the uſual vows of religious orders, they promiſed implicit obedience to the Pope, and became for a time his ableſt ſupporters. At the inſtigation of Paul, the emperor attempted to introduce the inquiſition into Na-

ples, but its inhabitants reſiſted it with ſucceſs, and it was the only Italian ſtate in which it never was eſtabliſhed.

Julius III. the ſucceſſor of Paul, removed the general council back to Trent, it having adjourned to Bologna, on account of an alledged plague; but as war was raging in Germany, its ſitting was ſuſpended. This Pope, who was infamous from his crimes and debaucheries, died in 1555, and his immediate ſucceſſor, Marcellus II. lived only a few days, after which Paul IV. was elected.

Paul ſet out with ſhewing his reſentment to the emperor and Ferdinand his brother, for the accommodating terms they had made with the Proteſtants in Germany. He therefore joined the French monarch in his views on Naples. But on the ſucceſs of the Imperial arms againſt the French, he was glad to make an humiliating peace with Charles. This Pope being haughty and overbearing, was very much diſliked at Rome; but ſome of his nephews whom he had raiſed to high offices, groſſly miſbehaving, he had the virtue to degrade and baniſh them.

In 1560, Pius IV. was choſen, and getting the laſt Pope's nephews into his power, they were tried and executed for the various crimes they had committed. The council of Trent was now reaſumed in 1562; and all that they had decided in the former pontificates, and his own, was eſtabliſhed. This Pope ſummoned Joan d'Albret, queen of Navarre, to anſwer before the inquiſitors at Rome, on a charge of hereſy, on pain of forfeiting her dominions; but Charles IX. of France interfering, matters were accommodated. He granted the uſe of the cup to the laity of Auſtria and Bohemia, at the deſire of the emperor Maximilian II. but he refuſed to allow the clergy to marry, though ſolicited by him and ſeveral princes of the empire to do ſo, as their incontinence was notorious.

Pius V. next aſcended the papal chair. He ſet out with the moſt furious perſecution of all heretics, and ſeveral perſons were burned by the inquiſition under his immediate orders. He alſo encouraged Charles IX. to perſecute his heretical ſubjects in France; and he excommunicated queen Elizabeth of England. He was the chief

encourager of the alliance that was entered into between him, the Venetians, and Philip king of Spain, againſt the Turks. By raiſing the duke of Tuſcany to the rank of grand duke, he offended the emperor of Germany, who claimed to be the lord paramount of thoſe territories, but by a bull which he iſſued in 1567, he aſſerted his authority over all princes and kingdoms.

Gregory the 13th, his ſucceſſor, rectified the calendar in October 1582, which was admitted immediately in all Catholic countries, but was for a long time rejected by the Proteſtants. It was in his pontificate that the maſſacre of St. Bartholomew took place in France, which occaſioned great rejoicings at Rome. This Pope was particularly attached to the Jeſuits, and many colleges of that order were founded and endowed by him.

Sixtus V. ſucceeded Gregory, by means of his intrigues and talents, and was a very able Pontiff. He was extremely ſevere againſt criminals, which however was neceſſary from the many dreadful offences that had been ſuffered to go unpuniſhed in former pontificates; and he cleared his do-

minions of numbers of robbers and aſſaſſins. Though zealous for the papal power, he did not approve of the league in France, but he excommunicated Henry of Navarre, and his brother the prince of Conde, and declared the firſt incapable of ſitting on the French throne. Henry, on the other hand, appealed to a general council, and called on all princes to defend the rights of kings. Sixtus highly ornamented Rome by various magnificent buildings; and that city was more indebted to him for improvement and wholeſome regulations than to any of his predeceſſors. The number of cardinals were eſtabliſhed to be ſeventy in this pontificate.

Urban VII. the next Pope, lived only a few days, and his ſucceſſor Gregory XIV. not quite a year. During his ſhort reign, he gratified Philip II. of Spain, by excommunicating Henry IV. of France, at the ſame time ſupporting the league; but the French in general deeming his bull ſcandalous, and contrary to the rights of the Gallican church, it was burned by the common executioner.

Innocent IX. who was next in the papal chair, lived a very ſhort time, and in the pontificate of his ſucceſſor, Clement VIII. Ferrara, by the death of the laſt prince of the houſe of Eſte, was added to the papal territories, it having been a fief to the holy ſee. But his reign was chiefly remarkable for a long religious diſpute between the Jeſuits and Dominicans, on the ſubject of grace, free will, and predeſtination. This Pope procured the re-admiſſion of the Jeſuits into France, they having been baniſhed after the murder of Henry III.

Leo XI. the next Pope, died in a few days, and then Paul V. was raiſed to the vacant chair. He took upon him the public title of Vice-God upon earth, the monarch of Chriſtendom, and the ſupporter of papal omnipotence. The republic of Venice having decreed that no more religious houſes ſhould be founded in their territories, and having alſo refuſed to deliver up two eccleſiaſtics who had committed capital crimes, Paul laid their dominions under an interdict. The Venetians, on their part, commanded their clergy to proceed as uſual in their offices, and the

Capuchins and Jeſuits refuſing to comply, they were baniſhed. Henry IV. of France now interfered, and a compromiſe took place. By it the expulſion of the Jeſuits was confirmed, but the Capuchins were permitted to return, and the two eccleſiaſtics in queſtion were given up to Henry, the Venetian government, at the ſame time declaring its right to try and puniſh them. Paul was alſo involved in a diſpute with the French, by having given his approbation to a book written by Suarez a Jeſuit, and which juſtified the murder of kings in certain caſes, and the power of the Pope to depoſe them. It however had no other conſequences than the parliament of Paris having the work burned by the common executioner. This Pope added to the beauty and convenience of Rome, and put the finiſhing hand to the church of St. Peter, ſuppoſed to be the moſt magnificent, moſt beautiful, and largeſt building in the world. A tribunal had been erected long before this, to decide between the Jeſuits and Dominicans, and they now held their 78th ſeſſion, when they at length declared the matters in diſpute were above their comprehenſion.

Gregory XV. was elected on the death of Paul. Being of a perſecuting ſpirit, he urged Lewis XIII. of France, the emperor Ferdinand II. and Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, to exterminate heretics in their reſpective dominions, and he cannonized Ignatius Loyola, who founded the order of Jeſuits.

In 1623, Urban VIII. ſucceeded Gregory, and he was the firſt that beſtowed the title of eminence on the cardinals. The dominions of the church were now encreaſed by the duchy of Urbino, which was a fief of it, falling in on the death of Franciſco Maria Della Rovere, without male iſſue. In this pontificate, the Jeſuits got a book, which had been written by Janſenius, a learned biſhop, condemned by his Holineſs, as it differed from them on the ſubjects of grace and free will.

Innocent X. the next Pope, was remarkable before his elevation, for an improper connexion with Donna Olympia, Maldachini, his brother's widow; and he continued it. He alſo ſuffered her to direct in all public affairs, and every appointment was ſold to gratify her avarice.

In 1655 he was ſucceeded by Alexander VII. who procured the reſtoration of the Jeſuits at Venice. He alſo iſſued a bull againſt their opponents the Janſeniſts who were in conſequence of it ſeverely perſecuted by Lewis XIV. of France, they being chiefly his ſubjects. Galileo at this time flouriſhed in Italy, and having aſſerted that the ſun ſtood ſtill, and the earth had two motions, he was condemned as an heretic by the inquiſition at Rome. He however ſaved his life by pretending he had changed his opinion.

Clement IX. became Pope in 1667, and his ſhort pontificate, was only remarkable, for ſuſpending the perſecution of the Janſeniſts. Clement X. followed, and then Innocent XI. filled the chair of St. Peter. There had ſcarcely been a Pope that had not aggrandized his relations to the utmoſt of his power: but Innocent reſolved to purſue a contrary conduct. He therefore nobly preſented to his nephew a very conſiderable eſtate, which he poſſeſſed at the time of his elevation, at the ſame time aſſuring him he had nothing more to expect. Innocent now made a

very wholeſome reformation, by abolishing a privilege exerciſed by the ambaſſadors at Rome, that of making their palaces aſylums for criminals; he was however obliged by Lewis XIV. to continue it to his repreſentative. But he had a quarrel with Lewis very ſoon after about the Regale. This was a claim on the part of the king, to give away all benefices that became vacant in the dioceſe of a deceaſed biſhop, till another was nominated; and Lewis alſo inſiſted that every biſhop, on his appointment, ſhould receive his inveſtiture from him and ſwear allegiance to him as his liege lord. In this diſpute the Pope iſſued bull after bull, which Lewis met with edicts, againſt their being received or attended to: and at a meeting of the French biſhops it was laid down as the ancient doctrine of the Gallican church, "that neither St. Peter, nor his ſucceſſors have received from God any power to intermeddle, directly or indirectly in civil or temporal matters; and therefore that kings and princes, are not liable in temporal affairs to the eccleſiaſtical authority, nor can they be depoſed by the power of

the keys; or their ſubjects be abſolved from their fidelity and obedience to them, or their oaths of allegiance. That the authority of a general council, is ſuperior to that of the Pope, agreeably to the 4th and 5th decrees of the council of Conſtance. That the rules, cuſtoms and inſtitutions that have been received in the Gallican church are to be preſerved inviolable. That the deciſions of the Pope are not infallible without the conſent and approbation of the church." Lewis's ambaſſador being changed at Rome, the Pope inſiſted on a new one giving up the right of aſylum in his palace, alledging the exemption did not extend beyond the reſidence of the former. But Lewis inſiſted on the contrary, and he took poſſeſſion of Avignon to enforce his claim. The Pope however died before the matter was determined. A ſect called Quietiſts aroſe in this pontificate, whoſe doctrines were condemned by the inquiſition, and its author impriſoned.

Alexander VIII. ſucceeded Innocent in 1689, and Lewis thought proper to give up the claim as to the aſylum, and to reſtore Avignon. Alexander not ſatisfied with this, began a violent at-

tack on the claims of the Gallican church. But he died in 1691, and Innocent XII. was elected. He iſſued a bull, after great oppoſition from the cardinals, aboliſhing nepotiſm; that is the Popes beſtowing great places and eſtates on their relations: and from his conduct altogether, he may be ſaid to have been one of the beſt of thoſe, who filled the ſee of Rome. Clement IX. his ſucceſſor, put an end to a diſpute between the Jeſuits and Dominicans, both of whom had miſſionaries in China. The latter had accuſed the former of allowing their converts to blend their Pagan ſuperſtitions, with the Chriſtian rites. This had been condemned by Innocent X. but Alexander VII. had afterwards approved of it. Clement however now made ſuch an order as in fact allowed the practice; but which at the ſame time appeared in ſome degree to juſtify the Dominicans.

A new diſpute at this time aroſe between the Janſeniſts and Jeſuits. The queſtion was whether abſolution could be granted to a man, that believed in his heart that the Pope and the church might be miſtaken in matters of fact. Forty

doctors of the Sorbonne determined that abſolution might be given to ſuch a perſon. But the Jeſuits contended otherwiſe, and the Pope iſſued a bull enjoining belief in matters of fact, as well as matters of doctrine. Another queſtion aroſe in the church of Rome, on a treatiſe publiſhed in 1671 by Paſquier Quenel, and which had been for a long time highly approved of by moſt of the biſhops and by the Pope himſelf. But the Jeſuits at this time alledged, that it ſecretly inculcated many of the tenets of Janſeniſm, and they had intereſt enough with Clement to have a bull iſſued in 1713 called Unigenitus, by which 101 articles of Quenel's book were condemned. This produced a great ferment in France, where forty biſhops accepted it, whilſt ſeven, one of whom was cardinal Noailles archbiſhop of Paris were of a contrary opinion; and the diſpute continued till after my preſent æra.

The arts which had been introduced by the Mēdici family in Tuſcany, after the fall of Conſtantinople to the Turks, had ſpread over Italy. Poetry, hiſtory, and other branches of litera-

ture, together with painting, architecture, muſic and indeed all the improvements of modern Europe, firſt flouriſhed in the ſtates of that country: But long before the year 1715 they had paſſed their ſummit in all thoſe branches, muſic alone excepted.

The ſtate of the papal power, during that period we have been reviewing neceſſarily calls for your attention.

The blow ſtruck by Luther, gave riſe to the moſt violent religious conflicts, and Rome exerted herſelf by every means to ſtem and check, the progreſs of the reformation. In thoſe countries where the inquiſition was eſtabliſhed, it became the great and principal inſtrument: and in all the other ſtates, maſſacres and perſecutions had been encouraged, with the moſt unremitting zeal, thouſands having ſuffered for their religious opinions. In all theſe proceedings, the Jeſuits, who had been eſtabliſhed in 1540, were the moſt active, and I ſhall here give you a brief account, of that ſociety.

The other monks rather confined themſelves to their monaſtries, to acts of mortification, and

of real or alledged piety: but the Jeſuits entered into all the buſy ſcenes of life. They were for that very purpoſe exempted from the common forms, and ceremonies of other orders. They were directed to ingratiate themſelves, with all the higher claſſes of mankind: and going through certain probations, and examinations, it was taken care that none were admitted to be of that body till their knowledge and parts were fully aſcertained. It naturally followed that men thus ſelected for talents and information became the preceptors of all the youths of diſtinction in every Catholic country. This, added to the open ſupport of the ſee of Rome, gave them ſuch an influence in every ſtate that admitted them, that they in fact became the directors of all public affairs.

This ſingular aſſociation of men elected a general for life, whoſe mandates were to be implicitly obeyed, without inveſtigation, enquiry or heſitation. He was however as implicitly to obey the Pope, and in fact this ſociety became the great ſupporter of the papacy after the reforma-

tion commenced by Luther. But in the year 1715 their influence was beginning to ſubſide; and in my next and laſt æra, you will ſee them utterly aboliſhed.

The nations whoſe governments acknowledged the Popes, at the cloſe of this æra, were France, Spain, Portugal, Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, the Netherlands, all thoſe of Italy, more than one half of Germany, and about one half of the Swiſs Cantons. Whilſt on the other hand he was denied by the governments of Denmark, Sweden, Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Holland, Great Britain and the remainder of Germany and Switzerland. Thus in 1715, there was at leaſt one half of Europe, that paid no obedience to the ſee of Rome. And from that year, as I ſhall in the laſt volume of this work, more particularly point out, the judgment ſat, to uſe the words of the prophet Daniel, which was to conſume, and in the end annihilate the papacy.

Before I conclude this letter I ſhall briefly mention to you the moſt celebrated authors of this æra, and I think you will have the beſt view of

the ſtate of nations, as to knowledge and the arts by dividing it into four periods. The firſt from 1453 to 1500—the ſecond the ſixteenth century—the third the ſeventeenth century and the fourth thoſe who were flouriſhing in 1715.

Italy in the firſt period, had Maffæus and Mantuan in poetry; and Arioſto, who was afterwards highly diſtinguiſhed, began to flouriſh. In hiſtory Merula, and in other branches of literature Savonarola, Ficimis, Tifaldi and Leonicenus, the latter being a phyſician. In painting, Signorelli, Francia, and Vinci, the latter of whom removed to France, were conſpicuous: and Titian, who became highly celebrated, had juſt appeared. The only diſtinguiſhed perſon in Germany during this diviſion, was Regiomontanus, who was an able aſtronomer. In France Beſſarion archbiſhop of Nice contributed to the revival of letters, and Comines was diſtinguiſhed as an hiſtorian. The eminent men in England were, Judge Littleton, who wrote on its laws as to property; and Sir Thomas More, one of whoſe works was Eutopia. Sir Reginald Bray, was alſo eminent at

that time, in architecture. Muſurus who was born in the Greek empire flouriſhed at the end of the fifteenth century as a Greek poet.

Italy in the ſixteenth century continued to increaſe in all kinds of knowledge. Her principal dramatic poets were Sperone, Gelli, and Giraldi, and on other ſubjects of poetry, Querno, Sannazarius, Scaliger the elder, Triſſino, Vida, Caro, Fraſcator, Faernus, Peter Gravina, Lampridius, Molſa, Palingenius, Alomanni, Andrelinus and Taſſo, the latter being eſteemed the prince of their poets. In hiſtory Sigonius, Egnatius, Brutus, Folieta, Omphrius, Adriani, Amiroto, Bernardine, Scaliger the younger who was alſo an eminent critic, Machiavel, Guicciardini, Strado, and Father Paul, the four latter of whom were amongſt the moſt eminent. In other branches of literature Phœdrus called the Cicero of his age, Pomponatius, Bellarmin, Palearius, Caſa, Commandinus, Alcyonius, Aldravanus and Antoniano. Magius was able in mathematics. In phyſic Borgarutius, Baccio, Fabricius who was alſo eminent as a ſurgeon, and John Bapt ſt Monta-

nus called the Galen of Italy. The chief painters were Bordone, Giorgione, Penni, Pierino, Polidoro, Prinaticio, Salviati, Sebaſtiano, Tintoretto, Sarto, Cagliani, Farinato, Pellegrino, Vaſari, who was an architect alſo, and Pellegrino Tifaldi who was likewiſe an architect, but the moſt eminent painters of this age, were Raphael the prince of painters, Titian, Corregio, Romano, Paulo Veroneſe, the three Carraci, and Michael Angelo Buonarotti, the latter of whom was alſo a great ſculptor and arcitect, Cellini was alſo a ſculptor, beſides being an engraver, and Palladio one of the greateſt architects of the world, alſo flouriſhed.

In the ſixtenth century the next countries to the Italian ſtates were England and France and as I think the firſt, rather ſuperior to the latter, I ſhall firſt mention thoſe who excelled in what is now Great Britain and Ireland. In poetry Spencer, Drayton, Fairfax, Buchanan who was alſo an hiſtorian, and Sir Philip Sidney who was likewiſe a good proſe writer. But above all, Shakſpeare the great Father of the Engliſh drama, ſhone at the

end of this century, and who I think is allowed to be ſuperior to every other dramatic writer. In hiſtory, Boethius, Holinſhed, Leſlie biſhop of Roſs, lord Brooke, and Stowe, the latter of whom was alſo an able antiquary, as was Cambden, who was illuſtrious in that branch of knowledge. Fox wrote a hiſtory of the church, Hooker on eccleſiaſtical laws, and John Knox, the great Scotch reformer, on divinity. On other general ſubjects in proſe, Sir Francis Walſingham, Aſcham, Alexander Barclay, and Bulleyn. In mathematics, Blagrave, Dee, Leonard, and Thomas Digges, the latter being particularly eminent for that age, and George Etheryge, who was alſo an able phyſician. Doctor Caius was alſo able in medicine. In muſic, Tallis was the Father of the cathedral ſtyle: and in painting Oliver and Hilliard were the moſt eminent.

The French poets worth mentioning were Daurat, Jodelle lord of Limodin, who wrote tragedies and comedies, Malherbe, ſtiled the Father of French poetry, Marot, Rouſſard, and Jamyn. In hiſtory, Davila, who, though a native of Cyprus ſettled in France, and De Thou.

Other able writers were Rabelais, Budæus, Delachamps, Montaigne, celebrated for his eſſays, Turnibus, Aubigne, Tournefort, a great natural hiſtorian, Molinæus on the laws, and called the French Papinian, and Ferrier a lawyer, called the Cato of France. In mathematics, Ramus, in phyſic, Briſſot, Foeſius, and Sylvius. Pineau excelled in ſurgery; and the beſt architect was Philibert de L'Orme.

Germany had in poetry Braſchius, George Fabricius, who was alſo an hiſtorian, Friſchlin, a dramatic writer, and Hutten. In hiſtory, Judex, Krantzius, Leunclavius, Rhenamus and Sleidan. On divinity, Luther and Melancthon, two moſt eminent reformers; and Andreas and Arndt, who were alſo able Proteſtant divines. In mathematics, Clavius, called the Euclid of Germany, and Munſter, who was alſo a natural philoſopher. Copernicus was the greateſt aſtronomer of that age, and Mæſtlinus was alſo able in that branch. Lubin, Acontius and Sturnius were eminent writers on different ſubjects, the latter being called the

Cicero of Germany. In phyſic, Eraſtus and Horſtius were eminent; and Durer in painting and engraving.

In the Netherlands, their poet Bochius was called the Virgil of the Low Countries. Philip de Marnix, lord du Mont, was an able writer, as was alſo Lipſius. Veſalius was eminent as a phyſician and anatomiſt, Mercator in geography; and in painting, Peter Breugel, the two Brills, Janſon, Quintin Matſys, Schorel, and Frans-Floris, called the Raphael of Flanders.

In Switzerland aud Geneva, Aventius was a good hiſtorian; and in natural philoſophy Conrad Geſner was called the Pliny of Germany. In religion, Calvin, who ſettled there, and Zuinglius were eminent writers. On medicine and philoſophy Paracelſus was able, and Holbein was an excellent painter.

In Holland the only poet of eminence of the 16th century was Secundus. Their moſt eminent proſe writers were Eraſmus and Gro-

tius, both of whom were celebrated throughout Europe, the latter particularly for his treatiſe on the rights of war and peace. Emmius wrote hiſtory and geography, and Merula, and particularly Ortelius were able on the latter. Heurnius was eminent on medicine, as were Hemſkirk and Derſens as painters.

Spain was amongſt the foremoſt in the 16th century, in regard to authors. In hiſtory, Mariana and Mendez, and the virtuous De la Caſſas, who wrote on the ſubject of the Indians in Spaniſh America. Cervantes, the celebrated author of Don Quixotte, alſo flouriſhed. Nonnius was able in mathematics; and in phyſic Monardes and Servetus, the latter of whom was afterwards burned to death at Geneva for his religious opinions, to the eternal diſgrace of Calvin, who did not attempt to prevent it.

In Denmark Tycho Brahe was celebrated in aſtronomy, and in phyſic and anatomy Caſpar Bartholinus was eminent.

In Portugal, Camoens their beſt poet, and called their Virgil, flouriſhed. Goez was alſo able as an hiſtorian.

We are now to view the chief writers of the 17th century, and on the beſt conſideration I can give it, I think England entitled to the precedence. Her chief dramatic writers were, Ben Johnſon, Fletcher, Beaumont, Dryden, Otway, Sir John Vanburgh, Madame Centlivre, Sir Richard Steele, Villers duke of Buckingham, Wycherly, Rowe, Lee, Sewell, Colley Cibber, Maſſinger, Addiſon, Southern, and Edmund Smith. On other ſubjects of poetry the moſt eminent were, Milton, who I think in his Paradiſe Loſt, takes the lead of the poets of the world, Philips, Waller, Prior, Lord Roſcommon, Sir Charles Sedley, Butler, Cowley, Sir John Suckling, Lovelace, Denham, Pomfret, Ogilby, Sir William Davenant, Mrs. Behn, and Swift; and ſome of theſe were ſtill more diſtinguiſhed as proſe writers, particularly Swift and Addiſon. In hiſtory, Knolles, Sir James Ware, Wharton, Sir Walter Ra-

leigh, Sir Paul Ricaut, Ruſhworth, Rymer, biſhop Burnet, Daniel, Sir Henry Spelman, Lullow, Sir John Marſham, Sir James Melvile, Sir William Dugdale, Fuller, Hakluyt, Sir John Hayward, lord Herbert of Cherbury, earl of Clarendon, Ockley and Stanley. On natural philoſophy, Morriſon, John Evelyn, Willis, Willoughby, John Woodward, Ray, Robert Boyle and Cole. In mathematics, Robert Hooke, Thomas Baker, John Newton, Sir Iſaac Newton, who was alſo moſt eminent in aſtronomy, chronology, and univerſal knowledge, being one of the greateſt men the world ever produced. Oughtred, Harriot, Gellibrand, Foſter, Dr. Francis Godwin, Greaves, Thomas Gregory, David Gregory, Gunter, Henry Briggs, Brouncker, Ward biſhop of Saliſbury, Flamſtead, and John Keill. Aſtronomy, Horrox, Halley, who was moſt eminent, Lydiat, William Molyneux, Bainbridge, and theſe were alſo able mathematicians. On religious ſubjects thoſe who were particularly diſtinguiſhed were Prideaux, Baxter, Calderwood, Chillingworth, Collier, South, Spotſwood, Stillingfleet,

Tillotſon archbiſhop of Canterbury, Uſher primate of Ireland, Atterbury biſhop of Gloceſter, Glanville, Hody, Kettlewell, Barclay, Lightfoot, and Barrow, the laſt of whom was particularly eminent. The two principal writers againſt revealed religion were Wollaſton and Hobbes. In phyſic the moſt eminent were, James Keill, Radcliff, Sydenham, John Arbuthnot, Sir George Ent, Archibald Pitcairne, Muſgrave, Harvey, who was highly celebrated, Arthur Johnſon, and Lower. In the law line, lord chancellor Somers and Sir John Holt were diſtinguiſhed, as was alſo Sir Matthew Hale, who wrote ably on it and religion. On general ſubjects, Walton, Sir Henry Wotton, William Wotton, Prynne, alſo an eminent lawyer, Saville marquis of Halifax, Selden, a celebrated antiquary, Bentley, Sir Thomas Browne, Dr. Thomas Burnet, Iſaac Caſaubon, the earl of Shaftſbury, Sprat biſhop of Rocheſter, Sir William Temple, Sir Kenelm Digby, Godolphin, John Locke, one of the greateſt writers and philoſophers England ever produced, Sir George Mackenzie, Andrew Marvel, who was ſtill

more diſtinguiſhed as an honeſt ſenator, being deemed incorruptible, Sir John Davies, Dodſworth, Bacon lord Verulam, a man of great genius and an able philoſopher, Sir William Petty, Plot, Oſborne, Muſgrave, Sir Thomas Overbury, Harriugton, Hall biſhop of Norwich, called the Engliſh Seneca, Mathew Henry, Berkley biſhop of Cloyne, and King archbiſhop of Dublin. In muſic, Lawes, Playford, North, (lord Guilford) Purcel, and Mace, the latter of whom wrote an account of the beſt practical muſic that had been in the world. The beſt painters were, Lancrink, Peter Oliver, Fuller, Richard Gibſon, Greenhill, Dobſon, Bull, Cooper, and Faithorne, who was alſo an engraver: and in architecture Inigo Jones and Sir Chriſtopher Wren were particularly eminent.

France was certainly the next country in knowledge and the arts during the 17th century. Her moſt celebrated dramatic poets were, Bruyes, Corneille, who was highly eminent, Scudery, Racine, Crebillon, Quinaut, Regnard, and Moliere; and in other poetry, Flechier,

who was alſo an able preacher, Fontaine, Madame Jardins, Boileau, one of their greateſt poets, Chapelle, Segraix, counteſs de la Suze, Voiture, Amand, Lainez, Monnoye, Sabliere, Charles Perrault, Madame de Houliers, and many of theſe poets were alſo good proſe writers. In hiſtory, Cheſne, ſtiled the Father of French hiſtory, Boſſuet, biſhop of Meaux, Boulainvilliers lord of St. Saiſe, Catrou, Banier, Daniel, De Retz, Salmaſius, duke de Sully, Mezeray, Orleans, Renaudot, Pereſixe archbiſhop of Paris, Pelliſon, Rapin De Thoyras, who ſettled in England after the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, Rollin, James Spon, Mabillon, Dupin on eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, Piles, who wrote lives of painters, and Bayle, who wrote an hiſtorical and critical dictionary. On natural hiſtory Claude Perault, alſo an architect, and Lemery. In mathematics, Des Cartes, Demoivre, Dechalez, Gaſſendi, marquis de Hoſpital, Ozanham, count de Pagan, Parent, Petit, Sauveur, Chazelles, John Francis Niceron, Bullaldus, and de la Hire, the two latter being alſo good aſtronomers.

On religious ſubjects, Jurieu, a divine, called the Goliah of the Proteſtants, Bochart, of the ſame religion, and Calmet; Bourdaloue, the beſt preacher in France, Denis Amelot, Maſcaron, Maſſilon, and Morgues, who were alſo able preachers. Charles de L'Orme was eminent on medicine, and on general ſubjects, Andrew Dacier, Madame Dacier, St. Evremond, counteſs Fayette, Fenelon archbiſhop of Cambray the celebrated author of Telemachus, Galland, Hamel, Hardouin, Herault, Huet, Balzac, Bautru, Bouhours, La Bruyere, Bos, Fontenelle, Peireſc, Buſſy, Patru, Paſcal, remarkable for his provincial letters, Real, duke de Rocheſoucaul, Regnier de Maretz, Savary, Sanſon, a great geographer, Lubin, Magdelaine Scudery, marchioneſs de Sevigne, Tavernier, Thevenot, Vaugelas, Baillet, Maignan, Malebranche, Menage, Meziriac, Montfaucon, de la Mothe, and Sallo. On fortification Vauban excelled. In muſic Andre cardinal Deſtouches, and Daſſouci were moſt celebrated: and the beſt painters were,

Blanchard, Bourdon, Le Brun, Claude of Lorraine, Michael Corneille, Couſin, the Coypels, Fontenay, Jouvenet, Vouet, Mignard, Perrier, Pouſſin, Pughet, Stella, Sueur, and Largilliere; and Callot and Nantrueil were eminent engravers.

In Italy their beſt poets for this century were, John Vincent Gravina, a dramatic writer, and Guidi. In hiſtory, Fontanini, Nani, and cardinal Pallavicini, and Bocconi, who was a natural hiſtorian. On philoſophy and other ſubjects, Malvezzi, Campanella, Borelli, who was alſo a mathematician, as was alſo Viviani; and Caſſini was an able aſtronomer. On medicine, Imperial, Lanciſi, Licetas, and Alpini, who was alſo an able botaniſt. Salvator was an able engraver, and alſo a poet. In muſic, Corelli and Lully, the latter of whom ſettled in France. In painting, Sacchi, Solimene, Domenechino, Ferri, Fetti, Gentileſhi, Gioſeppius, Grimaldi, Guercino, Jordano, Guido, Reni, Lanfranco, Lauri, Luti, and Arpinaſe.

The next country I ſhall ſpeak of is the Netherlands. They had no poet of eminence, and their chief hiſtorian was Gruterus. In natural philoſophy and phyſic, Helmont. But in painting they came next to Italy, and they had in the 17th century, Breugel, Champagne, Fouquier, Garrard, Gerbier, Jordans, Laireſſe, who was alſo an engraver, Janſon, Quelinus, Snyders, the three Teniers, Vandyck, who was chiefly reſident in England, and who was very eminent, as was alſo Rembrandt, and Rubens, the prince of Flemiſh painters.

In Holland their beſt poets were Catz, Broukhuſius, Hoogſtraten, Heinſius the younger, and Antonides. In hiſtory, Brandt, Meurſius and Hornius. In natural hiſtory, Swammerdam. On religion, Witſius and Limborch in favor of revelation, and Spinoſa againſt it. Boerhaave was one of the greateſt phyſicians that ever lived, Adrian Helvetius was alſo a very eminent one, and Leuwenhoek was an able phyſician. In anatomy, Bidloo, Graaf, and Ruyſch were diſtinguiſhed. On other ſubjects, Varenius, the two Voſſius's, Heinſius the elder,

Noodt, Bernouilli, and Nieuwentyt, the two latter being alſo eminent mathematicians, and Metius was famous for inventing teleſcopes with glaſſes. In painting, Bloemart, Brouwer, Goltzius, Ruyſdaal, Wiſſing, Wouverman, Oſtade, and Othovenius.

In Switzerland and Geneva, Goldaſt and Ott were good hiſtorians. In mathematics James Bernouilli; in phyſic Bonet; in anatomy Mangetus; on other ſubjects John Le Clerk and Morel; and Petitot, who was an able painter, invented painting in enamel.

Germany in poetry had baron Canitz, Vincent Fabricius, Lubin, Opitz, ſtiled the Virgil of Germany, and Taubman. In hiſtory, Ludolph, Obrecht, who was alſo ſtiled the Epitome of human ſciences, Perizonius, and Godfrey Olearius. In geography, Cluverius; in mathematics, Gueriche and Paſor; and in aſtronomy, Bruin, Hevelius, Kepler, who was particularly eminent, and Scheiner. In medicine, Etmuller, Frederick Hoffman, Gregory Horſtius, called the Eſculapius of Germany, and Meibomius. Koempher was an able bo-

taniſt, as was Maurice Hoffman, and the latter was alſo eminent in anatomy. On other ſubjects the moſt conſpicuous writers were, Leibnitz, an eminent philoſopher, Optius, Puffendorff, celebrated for his treatiſe on the rights of nature and nations, Seckendorff, Marhoff, Arniſæus, Anna Maria Shurman, Velſerus, Keckermanus, and John Gerard Voſſius. Their beſt painters were, Elſheimer, Sir Peter Lely, who reſided chiefly in England, Lingelback, and Sandrart. In muſic, Pepuſch, who chiefly reſided in England, and Hollar was eminent in engraving.

In Denmark, in aſtronomy and mathematics, Jonas, Longomontanus, Mercator, and Romer. Sir Godfrey Kneller, an eminent painter, was born there, but chiefly reſided in England. In phyſic, Borichius, and Thomas Bartholinus, and Borichius was alſo an able writer.

Poland had an eminent poet named Caſimir Lubienietſky, who was alſo an able writer on divinity, and Netſcher was an able painter, but he ſettled in Holland.

In Spain, Gongora their moſt eminent poet, and Lopez de Vega, their great dramatic writer, flouriſhed. Guevara and Solis were alſo dramatic writers, and the latter was alſo an able hiſtorian; and Quevedo was eminent both in proſe and verſe.

In Portugal, Faria flouriſhed as a poet and hiſtorian, and Zacutus wrote ably on medicine.

Of theſe perſons who were thus diſtiuguiſhed in the 17th century, there were ſtill living, on the firſt day of the year 1716, thoſe that follow.

In England, Pope, Swift, Congreve, Steele, Parnel, Southern, Addiſon, Prior, Rowe, Colley Cibber, Sir John Vanburgh, Sewell, and Madam Centlivre, of the poets. In hiſtory, Ockley. In mathematics and aſtronomy, Sir Iſaac Newton, Halley, John Keill, and Flamſtead. Sir Hans Sloane, and John Woodward, on natural philoſophy. John Arbuthnot, and James Keill, in phyſic. On religious ſubjects, Prideaux, Collier, South, Atterbury, and Wollaſton. On general ſubjects, Bolingbroke, bi-

ſhop Berkley, archbiſhop King, John Woodward, Muſgrave, William Wotton, and Bentley. In the law line, lord Somers, and in architecture, Sir Chriſtopher Wren.

In France, of their poets, Bruyes, Crebillon, Monnoye. In hiſtory, Boulainvilliers, Catrou, Banier, Daniel, Renaudot, Rapin, Dupin. In mathematics and aſtronomy, Demoivre, Ozanham, Parent, Sauveur, De la Hire. As an eminent divine and preacher, Maſſilon, and Calmet, who was alſo able on religious ſubjects. On general ſubjects, Andrew Dacier, Madame Dacier, Hardouin, Huet, Bos, Fontenelle, Montfaulcon. In muſic, Andre cardinal Deſtouches; and in painting, Jouvenet and Largilliere.

In Germany, on the firſt day of 1716, there were of the 17th century, Perizonius in hiſtory, Koempfer in botany, in phyſic Stahl, and Frederick Hoffman, on general ſubjects Leibnitz, and in muſic Pepuſch and Handel.

In Holland, Hoogſtraten in poetry, Boerhaave the moſt eminent of all phyſicians: there was

alſo, in the ſame ſcience, Adrian Helvetius and Leuenhoek, and in anatomy Ruyſch; in mathematics Noodt and Nieuwentyt, who were alſo able on other ſubjects.

In Switzerland and Geneva, John le Clerk on general ſubjects, and Mangetus on phyſic.

In Italy, John Vincent Gravina the dramatic poet, Fortanini the hiſtorian, Lanciſi the phyſician, and Solimene the painter.

Of thoſe produced by Denmark, Sir Godfrey Kneller was living, but who in fact had become an Engliſhman.

As I think it will tend to ſhow the relative ſituation of nations in 1715, I ſhall now mention thoſe who had become moſt conſpicuous in the firſt fifteen years of the 18th century.

In England, Young, Hughes, Fenton, and Mrs. Manley as dramatic writers. On other ſubjects, of poetry Garth, Gay, Tickell, Elizabeth Rowe, lord Lanſdown, and ſome of theſe were alſo writers in proſe. In hiſtory, Echard and lord viſcount Moleſworth. On general ſubjects, Moyle, Derham, Daniel de Foe, Ainſ-

worth, Potter, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Robert Hunter, lord Bathurſt, and doctor Samuel Clarke. In mathematics, Stephen Hales, who was alſo eminent in natural philoſophy, Whiſton, who alſo wrote a theory of the earth, Hayes, Saunderſon and Cotes, the latter being likewiſe an able aſtronomer. In phyſic, Friend, and Richard Meade, the latter of whom was particularly eminent. In painting, Sir James Thornhill. On religious ſubjects, biſhop Fleetwood, Nathaniel Marſhal, Dr. Iſaac Watts, and Sherlock biſhop of London. In geography Moll was celebrated, in mechanics Graham, and Vertue as an engraver.

In France, John Baptiſt Rouſſeau as a poet, Herault in the ſame line, who alſo wrote on hiſtory, as did Vertot. Le Sage as an ingenious writer, and Deſaguiliers on experimental philoſophy. In mathematics and aſtronomy, Caille: in geography, Liſle; in painting, Rigaud, called the Vandyck of France; in ſculpture, Lorrain; in engraving, Picart; and in muſic, Des Touches.

In the Netherlands Saurin was eminent as a divine, and Palfin as a ſurgeon.

In Holland, as an hiſtorian, Limborch; on mathematics, Graveſand, and Muſchenbroek, both of whom alſo wrote on moral philoſophy. Koenig, who wrote on philoſophy and natural law, Orville, an able critic, Mandeville, who attacked revealed religion, and Van Huyſum flouriſhed as a painter.

In Germany Eccard as an hiſtorian and antiquary.

In Switzerland and Geneva, Crouſaz, a celebrated philoſopher and mathematician.

In Italy, Maffei, a celebrated dramatic writer, antiquary, and critic. Muratori, alſo as antiquary, hiſtorian, and critic, and Geminiani, eminent in muſic, both as a compoſer and performer.

In Ruſſia, Demetrius Cantemir was an able hiſtorian, and alſo wrote well on other ſubjects. And Theophilus, metropolitan of Ruſſia, was likewiſe an hiſtorian, and the firſt to introduce polite literature.

Having thus pointed out to you the chief authors in the European countries, to which in fact all the knowledge of the world was then confined, I ſhall proceed to obſerve on the ſtate of mankind at the end of the year 1715.

FIFTEENTH LETTER.

FROM the year 1453, to the year 1715, is one of the moſt intereſting periods of the world. At its commencement all was nearly barbarous and ignorant, but at its cloſe, Europe was ſuperior in every thing to what had been recorded in the hiſtory of mankind. As you have ſeen the papacy flouriſh in the dark ages, ſo was that monſtrous fabric of impoſition to fall to pieces, as knowlege ſhould unfold itſelf. The great ſecond cauſe of enlightening Europe was the art of printing being diſcovered. In the article of religion, it gave wings to the doctrines of Luther and the firſt reformiſts; and in other branches it ſoon communicated all the information contained in the manuſcripts of antiquity. The clergy of the different ſects now endeavoured to diſtinguiſh themſelves in uſeful learning of every kind, and the Popes felt themſelves compelled to reform

many abuſes. The laity alſo, inſtead of applying only to arms, addicted themſelves to literature; and once being maſters of all that was known by the ancients, all orders of ſtudious men began to exerciſe their own talents for enquiry and uſeful inveſtigation. Moſt of the European countries had highly benefited by theſe exertions, but as France and England were decidedly ſuperior to all the others in the year 1715, I ſhall draw a ſhort account of the ſtate of each, and point out briefly in what they reſpectively excelled.

France had produced many able poets, both for the ſtage, and on other ſubjects. So had the Britiſh iſles; and certainly the Milton and Shakeſpeare of the latter, ſtand unrivalled. Both nations had ſeveral able hiſtorians, but I am inclined to think the French were ſuperior in this branch prior to the year 1716. In polite literature both were alſo eminent, but in this likewiſe I believe France was intitled to precedence. In the great branches of ſcience, and in all that required deep inveſtigation, I think the French

were inferior, nor did they produce any men who were to be compared to a Locke, or a ſir Iſaac Newton. In painting, in muſic, and in ſculpture, France was however ſuperior, and in architecture they were at leaſt equal, and in the purity of their languages, both had, in my opinion, riſen to their higheſt perfection. Of the other countries of Europe, I ſhall only obſerve, that the Italians ſtill kept the lead in muſic, where Corelli brought that art to great perfection: but in other reſpects moſt of the other nations had already excelled them.

I have yet only obſerved on literature, ſcience, and the arts; but England alſo excelled in agriculture, commerce, and in many manufactures. It was alſo leſs vicious than any other powerful nation; and I think myſelf warranted in ſaying, her inhabitants, take them altogether, had more of all that was truly deſirable, than any other people then on the face of the earth.

Though the moſt dreadful wars afflicted different European nations, during the cloſe of this period, yet they were not attended with that fero-

city which had taken place before the uſe of gunpowder, fire-arms and canon. Formerly men fought hand to hand, and death was almoſt certain to one of the combatants. But now war was in a great meaſure diſengaged from perſonal animoſity, and there were very few inſtances where mercy was refuſed to the vanquiſhed.

In regard to the laws, in the different nations of Europe they had become fixed and ſettled, and regular tribunals, even in countries that were not free, had been erected, inſtead of trials by combat, by walking over hot iron, dipping the hand in boiling water, and by different charms and conjurations. In no country, however, was freedom better eſtabliſhed than in England, where known laws and the trial by jury prevailed; and it was owing to that freedom obtained by the revolution of 1688, that England exhibited the flouriſhing picture ſhe did in 1715; and which enabled her afterwards to riſe to that ſummit of power, if not of real proſperity, which you will find in my next æra.

You have perceived from the beginning of hiſtory, at leaſt from the commencement of the Aſ-

ſyrian and Babyloniſh empire, that power and knowledge travelled weſt. It ſtopped indeed at Conſtantinople, after the Barbarians overturned the weſtern empire, till the eaſtern alſo yielded to the Turks, except a dawn introduced into Italy by the Croiſades, or Cruſades. But at length it burſt forth into new and unknown vigour in ſome parts of Europe, and indeed in ſome degree throughout all Chriſtendom. Could there be an exception ſet up, it muſt be China; but you muſt have perceived how far that country was inferior in 1715, in every art, and in all real knowledge. In the reſt of Aſia, deſpotiſm and barbariſm prevailed: So alſo in Africa and in that part of Europe where the Turks bore ſway. But in Chriſtendom, even in countries where the papal power and its ſuperſtitions were ſtill uppermoſt, there were certain rights of humanity, and certain rules and laws every where obſerved. Kings and ſtates had fixed rules as to precedence and titles. Each had ambaſſadors with each other. Theſe ſtates and ambaſſadors were ſtudious to prevent any one power overwhelming another, and thence the wars to preſerve the balance of

power. Inſtead of making ſlaves of priſoners taken in war, they were always exchanged, and inhumanity to the countries invaded was rarely permitted from authority, though it might be often impoſſible to reſtrain a licentious ſoldiery. The horrors of war were indeed ſtill abominable, but by compariſon they were leſs among Chriſtian ſtates than any others ever known in the world. In regard to women, there was no nation not Chriſtian, in which they were allowed thoſe rights to which they are entitled by nature. Under that religon, one man and one woman are allotted to each other, and in almoſt all Chriſtian countries, they were left without confinement. And in the moſt poliſhed and enlightened, the females in fact commanded in ſocial intercourſe. In ſhort, Chriſtianity, with all its perverſions, had given bleſſings to the nations that acknowledged it, unknown to the reſt of mankind.

I muſt again call your attention to the ſtill encreaſing population of the world. In the middle and almoſt to the cloſe of the XVIIth. century, the Ruſſians were a ſcattered body of illiterate and uncivilized barbarians, but under Pe-

ter the Great they took the ſhape of a nation, and laid the foundation of a great and powerful empire.

As Ruſſia was the laſt of Europe that remained barbarous, the progreſs of mankind was ſtill to go weſtward, and we find in this æra a new world burſting to our view. Columbus firſt diſcovered it, and other navigators more fully explored it. Magellan began the firſt voyage round the world, which was accompliſhed in 1522, Sir Francis Drake, an Engliſhman, did the ſame in 1580; Thomas Cavendiſh, another Engliſhman, in 1588; Oliver de Nort, a Dutchman, in 1591, and ſeveral others afterwards. By theſe and other voyages the great continent of America was well known in 1715, and numerous colonies from Spain, England, France, Holland, Portugal, and Denmark, were ſettled there, and in the adjacent iſlands.

From what I have ſaid you muſt have perceived that this period was peculiarly memorable for the art of navigation. Among the ancients a ſort of coaſting on the bounded ſeas of the Mediteranean and Euxine ſeas, was nearly

all that was known. But with the help of the loadſtone, the mariner's compaſs, and the improved knowledge of aſtronomy, the ocean may be ſaid to have been in the year 1715 navigable in every poſſible direction. At firſt the Portugueſe had taken the lead, and then the Spaniards, in all bold navigation. The French had been always backward at ſea, though great exertions were made under Lewis XIV. But in 1715 the Dutch and Engliſh were the principal naval powers though, as in almoſt every thing, the latter undoubtedly predominated. This is all I think neceſſary to obſerve, as to this æra, but at the end of my next I ſhall point out to you objects that will demand all your attention.

MVSEVM
BRITAN
NICVM